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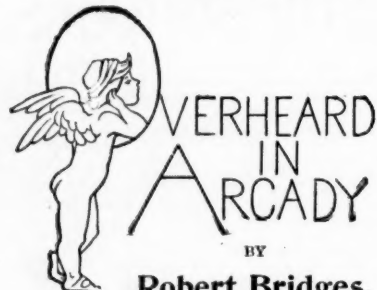
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 19, 1894.

The Week.

THE speech which Senator Lodge delivered on April 10th, before what the *Tribune* assures us was a "small but select audience" in the Senate chamber, is a striking illustration of the temptations which beset the scholar in politics. He set out apparently with the firm intention of taking high rank as a thinker, and began a philosophical dissertation on the different theories of government which underlie free trade and protection. Here we find that the let-alone theory, with its absurd talk about the rights of the individual and free competition, has become antiquated, and that all powerful minds have now gone over to the let-nothing-alone theory, under which protection and socialism and bimetallism find their place and justification. The rather dreary waste of political scholarship through which this thought was developed was dotted here and there with little oases in the shape of maxims worthy of Burke or Bunsby. One of them is the profound saying that "the true and lasting source of wealth is production"; and while the sagacious hearer is marvelling that he had never thought of that before, the orator goes on to show that trade is a bad thing, because it is "a tax upon production, on account of the cost of transportation." The truly wise and happy nation will go on piling up superfluous products, and eschew trade as it would a pestilence.

Towards the end of his discourse the scholar thought it necessary to let his small but select audience down from the thin air of speculation and give it a touch of cold facts. This is always perilous for political scholars, and Mr. Lodge promptly fell under the condemnation of his favorite author, Carlyle, for saying to the "hard fact," "Thou art not this way but that way!" The "fact" which he set out to establish was that wages in England had fallen from 12 to 15 per cent. in the last twenty years. This might seem a pretty difficult thing to prove for the ordinary politician, inasmuch as the investigations of Mr. Giffen and the statistics of the Board of Trade establish the conclusion that wages have risen in England from 30 to 50 per cent. in the past half century. But this is no difficulty at all in the way of the scholarly politician. He summons as his only witness a Manchester bimetalist, says that his gloomy talk about the ruin of England is all the testimony we need, and then goes on to speak solemnly of how "we see that in fifty years free trade has proved utterly un-

able to maintain wages in England, much less increase them." This is scholarship as she is politicked.

Senator Morgan was stung into denying on Wednesday week the plain-spoken charges of the Minnesota Democrats made against him and the other protectionist Democrats in the Senate, but his denial was singularly irrelevant. He had been named in the Minnesota address as one of the men who, "in the secrecy of the committee-room, browbeat the sub-committee with threats of open opposition to the bill unless the special industries they represented were also granted protection or given increase of it." Now how does Mr. Morgan meet the charges that he got, in this way, a duty put on iron ore and on coal at the behest of the Alabama manufacturers? Why, by the following naïve declaration:

"I am satisfied with the bill now taken up by the Senate as it came from the Senate committee. I propose to vote for it without any amendment whatever, so far as I now know."

In other words, having done what the Minnesota Democrats condemned him for doing, he urges his satisfaction with the results of his intrigue as a reason why he should never have been condemned at all. His peculiar defence would call out from his accusers, if they had a prophet Elijah among them, such a question as the latter addressed to Ahab, after that wicked king had got hold of Naboth's vineyard: "Hast thou killed and also taken possession?"

Happy-thought bimetallism seems now to be the order of the day. The Senate spent several sessions debating a proposition to get Mexico to let us do her silver-coining for her. All the great lights agreed that it would be a splendid scheme, as it would keep our idle mints going, and somehow start China into absorbing silver at a tremendous rate. Mr. Gallinger had read a letter of Moreton Frewen's, certifying to the fact that "the Chinese can absorb silver in the form of coin very rapidly." Close students of Chinese laundrymen in this country have noticed the same phenomenon among them, and the capacity of Ah Sin to absorb packs of cards indicates what might be done in stowing away silver "in the form of coin." Anyhow, Moreton Frewen tells us the hope of bimetallism now lies in getting "that mysterious nation" "westward across the Pacific" "to absorb even an ounce of silver per capita." All the Senators are, of course, devoted to the absorption of silver, in the form of coin or bars indifferently, and so they all voted for the resolution

calling upon the President to request Mexico to let us do her minting, and at once start the absorbing process in the mysterious nation. To no one did it occur to inquire what view of the case the Mexican Government might take. Who could doubt that Mexico would cheerfully give up her excessive seigniorage on the silver she coins and her revenue from export duties on the same, and give us all the profits and all the glory of starting up the absorption? But, alas for the happy-thought bimetalists, news comes that the Mexican authorities look upon the whole project as preposterous, and will have nothing whatever to do with it.

The decision of the Democratic caucus to pass a rule for "counting" a quorum in the House is a confession that Democratic absenteeism is regarded by the party managers as incurable. With forty members more than enough to make a quorum of their own, they are able to muster one only by prolonged effort, and then it vanishes at once. Private business and political indifference or insincerity keep from fifty to sixty Democratic Congressmen all the while away from Washington, and the Republicans have had an easy time of it holding their opponents' noses to the grindstone. What ex-Speaker Reed has been playing for all the session is to force the Democrats to adopt his method of declaring a quorum present. He has now succeeded, so far as the substance of the proposed new rule goes. Its form, however, and the way chosen to enact it, are different in important particulars from Mr. Reed's. He made his rule to count a quorum out of his own head, and without authority from the House or from precedent. He made the rule in order to make it—that is to say, he counted a quorum in order to get authority to count a quorum. That is a far different thing from an orderly decision of the House to adopt a certain way of determining the presence of a quorum. And when that determination is left, as is now proposed, to appointed tellers, and not lodged, as it was under Mr. Reed's rules, in the hands of the Speaker alone, who is always fallible and often arbitrary, the thing becomes much less offensive and open to abuse. In such matters as parliamentary rules the form is sometimes of more account than the substance, and it cannot be denied that the form of the rule now suggested has great advantages over the one in force in the Fifty-first Congress.

Still, the Democrats in this matter are hopelessly on the wrong scent. They will never find the cure for their troubles

in any scheme of counting a quorum. With all the aid of his rule, Mr. Reed had to have a quorum of his own party present to pass partisan laws. Does not every one remember the famous Republican campaign picture of the House, showing an empty Democratic side? The Democrats would not stay to be counted in 1891, and the Republicans will not in 1894. Mr. Reed had to have 167 Republican votes as a quorum in order to enact partisan legislation, and Mr. Crisp will have to have 179 Democratic votes for that purpose. No parliamentary trick can get around that necessity. At Albany the thing is settled by the State Constitution, which makes sixty-five affirmative votes—a quorum—necessary to pass a law through the Assembly. At Washington the thing is settled by partisan feeling, which justifies Representatives in staying out of the House and compelling their opponents to furnish their own quorum. It was so in the Fifty-first Congress, and it will be so in the Fifty-third and in all others. The real contrast—the fatal contrast for the Democratic party—lies in the efficiency of the Republican organization under Mr. Reed. With a margin of only nine or ten votes above a quorum, it was able to have a quorum present whenever needed, and to pass the laws the party had decided to pass. The prolonged floundering of the Democrats, with a party majority four times as great, is daily winning for their opponents the votes of men who say: "Give us a party, right or wrong, which can do what it sets out to do."

Ex-President Harrison, who is delivering lectures on some branch of the law out in California, seems to keep up his thinking on public questions in a remarkable degree. We are very glad to agree with his latest views, as expressed to the Union League Club of San Francisco at a reception on Tuesday week. This is what he said:

"I hold that our revenue laws should be so framed as to keep American mills open, and not to shut them. I believe it is worth our while to build a navy, and, incidentally, to have a coaling station within easy reach of our country somewhere in the Pacific. I don't want to annex the world, and I have not been much of an annexationist; but, when I find a spot which must be taken by us or some one else, thereby securing a station of the utmost importance to the United States, I say let us take it in."

The man who would gainsay these sentiments would, in our opinion, be unfit for human society. Any one who would frame revenue laws so as to shut up mills would be a monster. And the man who would refuse a coaling station which somebody else wanted, and we could keep without trouble or expense, would be a low fellow. But we would take no coaling station, or even accept it as a gift, unless somebody else wanted it. This is essential. It is a principle of the nursery which children of a larger growth

should cling to firmly. For this reason we hold, that when we want a thing it is a sign of unfriendliness for other nations not to want it also.

But the opinion which commands our most cordial concurrence is this:

"The ex-President said it was strange there should be so much distress now. Whoever has done it, or however it came about, it is un-American and should be repudiated by the people."

We have always held that distress was "un-American." Whenever we see a man in distress we know him to be either a foreigner who has not caught the spirit of our institutions, or a bad American who has been idling away his time in Europe with luxurious noblemen. For this reason the people cannot rise against it too soon and bring its authors to justice. We are glad to say, however, that no people in the world has ever taken to it kindly. Mankind has repudiated it from the earliest days. Adam found himself face to face with it when he came out of Eden, and was justly indignant with it, and in his anger planted potatoes and other vegetables and sought nitrogenous food in the woods with his boomerang. We are glad to see a man of President Harrison's thoughtful disposition in the field against it. With so many people disapproving of it, it must soon leave our shores.

Probably nothing more disgraceful even as a joke has ever occurred in the United States than the march of "Coxey's army." Day after day these people have passed by farms which are suffering for want of labor, and received provisions from the villages on their way. Of late the sheriffs and chiefs of police have begun to bestir themselves, but on the whole the "army" makes its way southward at a fair speed. There is no question that it is doing a great deal to bring discredit everywhere on American institutions and society. The movement may be a joke, but foreigners can never understand a joke as elaborate and prolonged as this. The uninterrupted march of 1,000 or 500 ragamuffins on the capital of a great nation to force the Government to issue irredeemable paper, in order to employ them on public works, is not calculated to raise either American intelligence or prosperity in the eyes of the world. But, deplorable as the spectacle is, is it not the legitimate outcome of ex-President Harrison's doctrine that the Government is bound to find work for the "unemployed"—the unemployed being every man who says he has no employment? And is it not the outcome also of the protectionist preaching that employment depends on the existence of the McKinley tariff, without which America grew and flourished for a hundred years?

The Republicans of Colorado are improving the enthusiasm aroused by their success in the recent municipal elections to begin immediately the work of organization for the contest of next fall, when State officers will be elected and the fate of Populism will be settled. The canvass thus opened will be followed with interest by the rest of the country as the first in which women have participated in that State, or, for that matter, in any State except Wyoming, which is really too small to count. The town and city elections seem to have settled the question that the women of Colorado will vote, registration having been general, and the percentage of ballots to registration unusually high. The indications are that they will also take much interest in the preparations for the State election. In a number of places Republican clubs are being organized composed of both men and women, and with women represented among the officials. The spectacle is a novel one to outsiders, but it is rapidly becoming so common in Colorado that the newspapers are already treating it quite as a matter of course. There is no dispute in either party that the great majority of the women are against the Populist follies, and that their participation in the next election makes the overthrow of Gov. Waite much more probable than it would otherwise be.

That was an interesting decision rendered by Judge Nott of the Court of Claims at Washington on Monday, that the President has a right to approve a bill after the adjournment of Congress, provided he does so within ten days. The question will doubtless be carried to the United States Supreme Court for final decision. It is odd that a verdict from that tribunal has never been secured. The opinion of such commentators upon the Constitution as Story has been the other way—that the power of the President over a bill ceases with the adjournment of the session. Such, too, has been the almost unbroken practice. As the moment of adjournment approaches, there is always a great rush to secure the Executive signature, under the belief that he cannot lawfully affix it an instant afterwards. But there is one important precedent on the other side. Lincoln approved what was known as the captured-property act eight days after the adjournment of Congress, and the constitutionality of the act thus signed was recognized through its treatment by every branch of the Government as valid. It would be in the public interest if the President could have more time to consider the mass of bills which are always hurried through in the closing hours of a session; and, if he really possesses this power, the fact ought to be affirmed by the Supreme Court, so that he may exercise it without question.

We trust the New York Constitutional Convention which meets this summer will not overlook the influence of the press in cherishing and promoting hostility to foreign nations, and preparing the popular mind to take offence at trifles, and to love violence as a means of settling disputes, and in diffusing a spirit of lawlessness among the young officers of our navy. In no way can this be met so effectively as by an article making all editors under sixty, and not physically infirm, who advocate a war, liable to serve in the field or on board ship immediately on the outbreak of hostilities. As age in no way diminishes their capacity for mischief, they might after sixty be compelled to serve in the ambulance corps on shore or as surgeons' mates on shipboard. We believe, in all seriousness, that this would be likely to save the nation hundreds of millions of dollars, and the human race untold misery. If we may judge from our history, war between the United States and any other nation in the world would be unlikely to the verge of impossibility but for the press, which in this matter displays just as little sense of responsibility as it does in the collection of "news." Fictitious accounts of battles in which we blew the enemy out of the water, might be made punishable as a misdemeanor, on the application of the Young Men's Christian Association.

A terrible fellow is Colonel Phil Thompson of Kentucky, who appeared for Mr. Breckinridge in the late breach-of-promise case. Colonel Phil some years ago murdered a man in cold blood on a railroad train, on suspicion of improper relations with his wife, and had a roaring trial of his own. One would have expected that in this case, therefore, he would appear as the champion of domestic purity. Far from this, he was a furious defender of Breckinridge, and shocked the entire South by the affirmation that his client is no worse than other men. Two of the Louisville papers have commented on it with such severity that we should not like to be in the shoes of the editors when Col. Phil gets home and has time to attend to them. The story that the case has been pushed or supported by the "Briggs men" in order to break down Breckinridge's weight as an opponent of the "higher criticism" in the General Assembly, has, we are pleased to believe, not a particle of foundation. But it is quite certain that Breckinridge's career as a religious or semi-religious orator is closed. Neither Sabbath observance nor the Confession of Faith can get any more help from him.

The registration bill which Mr. John Morley has introduced in the House of Commons proposes to deal with the anomalies in the British law which have

long vexed the souls of the Radicals. One is the length of residence required for registration—six months. This has borne very hardly on workmen, who in these hard times have been obliged to move about a good deal in search of work. It is proposed to reduce it to three months. Another is the practice of holding elections throughout the kingdom, on a dissolution of Parliament, on different days. The writ merely directs the sheriff to make a return before a certain date, and he has the interval, generally a fortnight, in which to select his day. This often enables people who vote as freeholders to vote twice, and sometimes as much as six times, in different constituencies. If the elections all took place on the same day as here, this would no longer be possible. But, to make assurance doubly sure, the bill adopts the Radical principle of "one man one vote," and forbids the casting of more than one vote by any man anywhere. The Tories cling to this plural vote for freeholders on the ground that it is a just and proper protection for property against numbers. But their strongest objection to the present bill is that it makes no provision for "redistribution," or, as we say, for reapportionment. There are in this field very great anomalies, in spite of the redistribution act of 1885. The Tories are particularly anxious to get a whack at the Irish representation, which is now very much greater, as compared with the English and Scotch constituencies, than the population of Ireland at present warrants. But the right to interfere with it is doubtful, as the number of Irish representatives was settled by the Act of Union, which has at least some of the characteristics of a treaty with the Irish nation. To diminish their number would, therefore, make a prodigious uproar. The Liberals will make a desperate fight for the bill before dissolving as they think it will increase their vote by about 100,000.

Sir William Harcourt's budget, about which so many sensational rumors have been set afloat, is a pretty tame affair after all, except in the matter of the income tax. Here the growing power of the Radicals in the Liberal party is again demonstrated, not only in the increase of a penny in the pound, but also in a scheme which practically makes the income tax a graduated one. This bill is already denounced by the Tories as an attack upon them because they are rich, and doubtless there is some truth in this. There is this to be said, however, that if the rich Tories had not got up their scare about the insufficient navy, and forced the Government into making extraordinary naval grants, there would have been no deficiency to provide for and no graduated income tax. In so far the men are hit hard who deserve to be. Mr. Goschen's objections

to the plan for consolidating the five existing classes of death duties into one "estate duty," also to be graduated, are that the provisions are so complicated as to require the most prolonged and careful discussion by Parliament. The poor tax collectors ought also to be remembered, lest there be more of them to imitate the old Westmoreland distributor of stamps who said, after one of Mr. Gladstone's innovating budgets: "Sir, my head, sir, is worn out; I must resign. The Chancellor, sir, is imposing of things that I can't understand."

There is no subject, probably, on which there have been so many aberrations of the human mind as money, but we question if there has ever been a greater one than "Dr. Arendt's plan for raising the price of silver." Four states, England, France, and Germany, and the United States, are to receive silver bars and issue certificates against them, and the value of the bar is to be fixed annually by a majority of the states concerned "whose representatives would meet every October—each country to have one vote for each million of population." The reason why there is so much fuss about silver now is that it is supposed to be possible, by some sort of huggermugger, to convert it into a reliable standard of value. But Dr. Arendt proposes to change the value of the standard of value every year by a popular vote. The making of contracts under this system would cause scenes of uproarious mirth. It fully resembles a system by which the yard measure would undergo revision every year, and a convention would decide annually what was meant by an agreement to deliver 1,000 yards of broadcloth. A majority of the nations, with one vote for every million of inhabitants, might decide one year that 1,000 yards meant 1,200, and another year that they meant only 800. The *London Spectator* said recently that the American people would have to go through a good deal of suffering before it would resolve to leave currency to experts, as it leaves astronomy. This is probably true, but it is not true of America only. Currency is getting into politics everywhere as the socialistic theories spread; and the power of the Government over its purchasing power is a sacred article of the socialistic creed. Unluckily, large numbers of people who ought to know better and who are not socialists, are playing into their hands by proclaiming that the Government has this power. The craze will never be over till the Government agrees to stamp the weight and quality on all metals brought to it, abolishes legal tender, and lets people make their own bargains in their own metal. The notion that the Government can raise and keep up the value of commodities indefinitely by merely saying "Go to," is a suggestion of the modern Satan.

FACTS FOR BOSTONIANS.

THE *Vicksburg Herald* is an influential paper in Mississippi, and it prints every week paragraphs like the following:

"It makes hard-working farmers and enterprising merchants tired to hear the 'plenty of money' cry played upon by the Wall Street organs. They tell of the surplus in the large cities, and even hint at still more contraction being necessary.

"Of course there is plenty of money with cotton, wheat, and all agricultural products selling at only two-thirds of their normal value. If agricultural products would only sell for half their value, the surplus money in the banks would be still greater.

"What the farmers want is plenty of money, with agricultural products bearing such prices as to make agriculture reasonably profitable. The merchants desire that condition also, for if the farmers are prosperous, the merchants are prosperous. But the trouble is, that Cleveland and Sherman don't care a continental for a farmer."

In connection with this let us mention that in a Democratic primary in Louisiana held on Saturday last to nominate a Congressman, a vote was taken on the leading questions of the day, among them the income tax and the free coinage of silver. For the income tax the vote was 3,446 against 151. For the free coinage of silver the vote was 3,270 against 226. These facts, added to the above quotation, give us a fair idea of the opinions current at the South on the two great questions of currency and taxation.

The truth is that what we have gained by the repeal of the Sherman silver law is, in the main, the abandonment of the attempt to keep, single-handed, an unlimited quantity of silver at par with gold. We have not yet got out of the heads of the Southern people the three following dangerous notions: that an unlimited quantity of silver money would be a good thing; that it is the duty and is within the power of the Government, to keep up the price of commodities; that the people of the North and East have got most of the money that there is, and are enjoying it in complete indifference to the sufferings of the rest of the country, and that it is therefore right to impose a tax which will fall principally on their incomes.

It was most unfortunate that so many people here at the North believed that the victory of sound currency was completely won when the Sherman law was repealed. The truth was that it left untouched in a large part of the country the great delusions out of which the Sherman law sprang, and which it was intended to satisfy. Its repeal was simply a surrender to stern necessity. There was no money in the Treasury to continue the purchases for which it provided. Foremost among these delusions was the belief that the Government can raise or lower the standard of value; that it is its duty to supply money to the people, and that the bankers and others who refuse to lend it without security are selfish and designing persons, who ought to be taxed into good behavior.

The first duty of intelligent men, when

the struggle of last fall was over, was, it seems to us, to engage heart and soul in the great work of public instruction as to the nature and functions of money, and to abstain rigidly, for a while at least, from any words or acts which would be likely to aggravate the prevailing popular errors on this subject—errors more threatening probably to the immediate economical future of the country than any with which we have ever had to contend since the foundation of the government. The appearance of the currency in the political arena was the greatest misfortune which has befallen the nation except the civil war.

The almost immediate initiation of a movement in Boston, therefore, of all places in the world, to spread and enforce the belief that it is the duty of the Government to take charge of the currency and see that there is a proper quantity, and that there is now or will shortly be a terrible scarcity of currency unless something is done to bring silver into general circulation, was a very startling phenomenon. It surprised people in this part of the world nearly as much as a meeting in the same place in 1864 to advocate the retention of slavery would have done. There is no quarter of the Union in which the lucubrations of Gen. Walker and his associates will not be taken as full corroboration of the charge that Cleveland and Sherman are responsible for the low price of farm produce, and that unlimited silver would cure most of the economical evils from which the world is now suffering. It is true that these gentlemen ask for the aid of foreign nations in this great work of redemption. But to the Southern farmer this is all "poppycock." He thinks it natural for men who go to Europe every summer to talk in this way, but he fails to understand why a great country like America should be dependent on "abroad" in a matter of such vital importance. The idea he has got hold of is that all governments at this crisis owe silver to their people, and that the reason why European governments do not let them have it is that they are controlled by the "gold-bugs" and the "money power"; and he asks, not unnaturally, why our government, which is truly a government of the people, should be subject to such influences.

It is of course humiliating, considering how much we plume ourselves on the popular intelligence, to have to acknowledge that very few of the unlimited-silver men have the least idea of the precise manner in which free coinage would benefit them. We have a score of times asked men who know the Southern people, how they suppose the silver would get into their pockets after it was coined, but all acknowledge that they have never thought the matter out at all. They

know, of course, in a general way that the price of farm products is regulated by the price we get for our surplus abroad, and they know, too, that nobody who owns silver would give it to them for nothing. But, strange to say, this knowledge does not seem to connect itself in any way with their politics. You may show them as much as you please that after a man got his silver coined at the mint, he would not part with it except to purchase something or to lend it on good security; they will still hold that Cleveland and Sherman, in refusing to coin more freely, show that they do not "care a continental for a farmer." It seems to us, therefore, that Gen. Walker would have been much better employed in leading a corps of lecturers on economical topics into the South than in starting a bimetallic society at home.

THE SPIRIT OF THE NAVY.

THE report of the Senate committee in relation to the Hawaiian Islands is a document full of mysteries, but the key to most of them is to be found in the well-known Jingoism of the chairman, Senator Morgan. Incidentally he tried to please everybody concerned in the Hawaiian affair, with the natural result of pleasing nobody; but his main intent was to make his report a powerful argument for a big navy, and the Nicaragua Canal, and coaling stations thick as blackberries, and general bumptiousness and insolence in foreign relations. This crops out in the first map appended to the report. It is a "Naval Chart of the Pacific and Western Atlantic," and is covered with converging lines of bright green, which intersect each other (in a way little short of miraculous) at the Sandwich Islands, thus making it plain to the comprehension of a child, and by truly childish methods, that the Hawaiian Islands are the true "cross-roads of the Pacific," and that we must have them, or for ever lose our self-respect.

Similar ulterior ends appear again and again in Mr. Morgan's examination of the various naval officers who came before the committee. The questions as to their knowledge of what took place in Honolulu in January, 1893, were perfunctory, and the real interest lay in the inquiries made relative to naval policy and naval strategy. This is truly a matter of the highest importance, for if we are going to have a new navy, the spirit and attitude of its officers are of more account than the size of the ships or the number of the guns. Such a revelation of animus and wonderful ideas of international law as Lieut. Staunton made in his *Harper's* article is a most alarming symptom of the spirit of the new navy. We regret to say, however, that it is paralleled, if not outdone, by some of the testimony in the Senate report.

Rear-Admiral Belknap, for example, thought that "we ought to assume control [of Hawaii] right away," so that, in Senator Morgan's language, "we might there establish our naval station and have in the middle of the Pacific a means of offence and defence against the fleets of Europe and Asia." Not a word about the rights or wishes of the inhabitants of the islands, but all a question of naval strategy with the islands of the world like so many pawns at the disposal of the masters of the game. This was put even more bluntly by Capt. Wiltse, who landed the troops in Honolulu. It must be said for him that he had some faint conception of the proper way to recognize a revolutionary government, and that at the very moment when Stevens was hurrying off to the shivering revolutionists his recognition of them, prepared beforehand, as he himself testifies, Capt. Wiltse was saying to them, in answer to their entreaties to be recognized: "We cannot recognize you when there is another government across the street." Still, on the main question of international policy and the proper use of the navy, he put the case in the frankest Jingo fashion. A few days after the revolution he said to a gentleman who now testifies as to his exact words:

"All this talk about who has a right to vote and who has a right to govern in these Islands is bosh. I do not care a cent about that. The only question is, Does the United States want these Islands? If it does, then take them."

Nearly all the officers who were examined by Senator Morgan agreed with that terror of the world's navies that we cannot be too quick about preparing for a naval war in the Pacific and fortifying Pearl Harbor as the true way of bringing to naught the craft and power on an enemy's ships—"say British ships," as the Alabama Senator would innocently remark. We are glad to say, however, that his profound strategy was shown to be decidedly of a fresh-water kind by one or two officers who had the slight advantage over him of knowing something about distances and the steaming power of men-of-war. Commander Ludlow reminded the chairman of some of the elementary truths of naval warfare, such as the fact that the "Pacific is a very large ocean," and that it would be just like an enemy's fleet to make light of the circumstance that the "key" of it was in our possession, and "pass you, get in behind you, and you would never know it in the world." He also observed, with a deplorable lack of reverence for "keys," that if an enemy ever wanted it, he would send a fleet and "shell the place to pieces." "Then," said the startled mariner presiding over the committee, "we do not need a navy." Commander Ludlow replied, however, that we did need one, and a big one, if we expected to fight any great naval power, but that the absurd thing was to suppose an enemy would pay any attention

to our coaling stations or land fortifications, as if it were against the laws of war to pass within 2,000 miles of them.

Most luminous and cogent were the views of Commander Houston also. He held that "in time of war and without a navy equal or nearly equal to that of the greatest naval power," the possession of the Hawaiian Islands "would be a source of weakness rather than strength." "We should ultimately have to let them go," he maintained, "after having wasted a lot of money." As to the likelihood that this country would authorize the creation of a great naval force, he thought that a calm inquiry as to the attitude of Congress and the country on that question would show the thing to be so improbable that "we need seek no further for reasons for not acquiring the islands."

"MUNICIPAL MONOPOLIES."

A LITTLE book called 'Social Reform and the Church' has just been published by Prof. J. R. Commons. One chapter in it advocates "municipal monopolies," by which the author means the "distributive enterprises"—such as the manufacture of gas and the furnishing of electric lighting and the public operation of all the means of transit. The writer is professor of economics and social science in Indiana University. He is also secretary of the American Institute of Christian Sociology. Further, he is certified to by Prof. Ely, who is himself a director of economics in the University of Wisconsin. Prof. Ely says that all who want "vigorous thinking, clear thinking, and a right spirit," will hear of something to their advantage by applying to Prof. Commons.

A plain newspaper man who is neither professor, director, nor secretary, and who has no clearer idea of Christian sociology than the French anarchist's—namely, that it is the doctrine that a little roast beef goes well with the bread of life—will be forgiven for a good deal of trepidation in venturing into such a many-capitalled presence. As Pascal's Jesuit would say, any opinion coming from such a source must be highly "respectable." We were lately rebuked for flippancy in speaking without bated breath of the "head of the historical school in Germany," and who knows what kind of a school Prof. Commons may be the head of? Still, no thinker, however labelled, can object to a humble exposition of his views, and that is all we mean to undertake in regard to those of Prof. Commons on "Municipal Monopolies."

We gladly give him credit for having come within a thousand miles of the truth concerning the actual condition of "the State," as embodied in our city governments. He admits that there

is nothing ideal or divine about them. He speaks of our "corrupt cities," and agrees "that city government must be improved before these industries can be safely intrusted to it." In fact, "without civil-service reform it is better to go along as we are." Still, this does not prevent him from maintaining that, "with public ownership of the monopolies, city government in America may be expected to take on generally a high plane of morals and efficiency." That is to say, the way to make politicians quit stealing through paving and street-cleaning contracts, and corrupting the police and fire departments, and loading down the pay-rolls with incompetents, is to turn over to them the business of making gas and furnishing electricity and running all the street-car and omnibus lines. How the thing will be made to work that way, Prof. Commons does not explain, but it must be on the principle of the "surfeit cure" for drunkenness.

He brings forward a lot of figures to show how much more cheaply cities can furnish gas and electric lighting than private corporations can. In a note, however, he admits that his statistics have been "ably criticised." An ordinary man, having no connection with any institute of Christian sociology, would say they had been riddled. Whatever plausibility is left to them depends upon the fact that, as Prof. Commons innocently remarks, "public financing is based on different principles from private." In other words, a private corporation reckons in cost of plant, deterioration of machinery, repairs, improvements, etc., while "public financing," as exemplified in many of the reports he refers to, takes no account of all that, because, as Prof. Commons again explains, "expenses are paid out of taxes." This might seem objectionable to some carper, but the professor is ready for him with the following thrust: "How can a city government be pure and noble when we look upon its reform merely as a matter of reducing the tax rate? Men are better than taxes."

After mastering this principle, which is a neat alternative to Director Ely's famous dictum that we must look at these things "from a broad social standpoint," and not ask too curiously where the money is to come from, the reader will be ready to go on and take in Prof. Commons's explanation of the advantages of having cities operate street rail ways. "Freight as well as passengers" would be carried "free of charge." No pedestrian is now compelled to "pay toll" for walking in the streets, and by parity of reasoning no charge should be made for riding or shipping goods in street cars when they are owned by the city as the streets are now owned. Furthermore, and this is a most timely point, "men out of work could ride in

search of employment, instead of wearily tramping the streets." Doubtless they would if they could, but would they ever stop riding? However, we will not quarrel with any of the points in Prof. Commons's description of his New Jerusalem street railways, except with one. He says: "Profits from the street-car business would be spent at home instead of in Europe." This we venture to doubt. We do not believe that even a director of economics could make any profits, to be spent either at home or in Europe, out of a road that made no charge for freight or passengers.

Finally, Prof. Commons draws a delightful little sketch of "the way the thing can be done." The mayor appoints a "director of transportation." This officer appoints a superintendent. He is to be a "scientific expert," and his office is not to be "political." He is, however, to appoint all the foremen, and the foremen all the operatives, and the smell of politics is to be on none of their garments. All appointments are to be made for merit only, and no dismissals are to be tolerated except for incompetence. It is all quite paradisaical. There is nowhere in sight a Mayor "Tom," or a scientific expert "Mike," to molest or make afraid. Still, we know that this is no idyllic dream, for we have the word of a director of economics that it is "vigorous thinking, clear thinking, and in a right spirit." Otherwise we should have been tempted to take our lives in our hands, and run the risk of mortally offending some "school" or other by saying that all this is precisely on a par, both for vigor of thinking and benevolence of intention, with the schemes of the little girl who goes out into the kitchen and tells the old colored cook that she is going to give her a white satin dress with real lace trimming when she gets rich.

WOMEN AT THE UNIVERSITY OF LONDON.

LONDON, March, 1894.

THE University of London is notoriously not a teaching body, but an examining board, with a Government charter granting the right to confer degrees. Degrees are conferred in arts, science, medicine, surgery, law, and music, and the courses and examinations required are among the most severe of any in the world. A failure in one subject at examination means failure in all, and the whole work of the year must be done over again before the student can proceed. This necessarily makes graduation within the regular period a most difficult matter. Three sets of examinations—matriculation, intermediate, and final—arranged at stated periods and spread over at least two years, are required before a candidate may graduate, and another year of still harder work is necessary before he may take the degree of master or doctor. Honors in each subject comprised in the regular examinations are open to students of exceptional ability desiring to win distinction in any line. For these the examinations are far more difficult and the

standard of attainment much higher than that of the simple "pass" examination.

To this institution women have been trooping by the thousand ever since 1878. I might say since 1867, but the step which was taken in that year was only tentative and met with little favor among women. The University was at that date empowered to institute special examinations for women, and the subjects chosen were those which the board presumed would be preferred by the women themselves. But this did not work at all. The women did not want to have their dishes chosen for them, and very few cared to avail themselves of the privilege. Besides this, it was a significant fact that women won distinction not so much in the "special," but in the regular classical and scientific subjects of the University. It was evident that they did not want a scheme of instruction devised especially for them any more than they care for those wildly exciting items of interest which the newspaper editor imagines are the only things in his "woman's column" that touch the female heart. What they wanted was access to the ordinary degrees and honors and subjection to the same tests as those imposed on the men. In 1878 this desire was obtained. The Senate and Convocation of the University received from the Crown a supplemental charter, "making every degree, honor, and prize awarded by the University accessible to students of both sexes on perfectly equal terms." Thus the University of London was the first academical body in the United Kingdom to admit women as candidates for its degrees. That this equality is no mere form is evidenced by the fact that the University registers and calendars make no distinction whatever between male and female students. The names of men and women are mingled indiscriminately in the lists, either alphabetically or according as their attainments place them; the papers of all students go up to the examiners numbered, not signed, and the claim that women have access to all honors and prizes on an equal footing with the men is justified by an honors list swelled with women's names.

The women proved their appreciation of this state of things by flocking at once to the University. The statistics of the Register are instructive. Since their admission in 1878, 4,364 women have applied for matriculation, against 44,151 men since 1838; and of these, 2,558, or more than one-half, have passed, falling short of the proportion of successful male candidates by hardly an appreciable fraction. In fact, the average proportion of successful candidates at any examination is about 50 per cent., women as well as men. This fact is suggestive of much that is interesting regarding woman's brain-power in competition with man's. Again, it is interesting to note in connection with the number of women seeking a university education, that the proportion of women candidates during the fourteen years between 1878 and 1892 has reached one-tenth the number of men during the fifty-four years of the University's existence, or, in other words, an annual average of nearly one-half that of the men, the average of male applicants per year being 817 and of female 312. As 50 per cent. of the candidates fail, these figures, of course, include a certain percentage who go up a second time, thus reducing the proportion of new candidates; but this applies to the men as well as the women, and the fact of application remains the same.

Turning now to the degrees, out of 611 women candidates, 415 have taken the degree of Bachelor of Arts; 28 out of 37, Master of Arts; 70 out of 136, Bachelor of Science; 2 out of 3,

Doctor of Science; 1 out of 6, Bachelor of Law; 31 out of 38, Bachelor of Medicine (with right to practise); 4 out of 6, Doctor of Medicine; and 4 out of 8, Bachelor of Surgery. Thus the University has conferred 555 degrees on women during the fourteen years of their presence at the examinations. It will be seen that, in every case but two, more than one-half (or the usual 50 per cent.) of those who went up for a degree succeeded. This is a percentage fully as great as that of the men, and it is worthy of remark that in the case of two degrees it is somewhat greater, and that, too, in science. It will be observed that almost four times as many women are drawn to the arts as to science, medicine, and law put together. The probable reason is that the arts course furnishes a far more general education, being a combination of classics, English, modern languages, and as much mathematics and science as the average woman cares about; while, on the other hand, the scientific course is pure science, and on that account more specialized and technical, appealing to peculiar talents or professional objects. It is noteworthy, however, that the women who have tackled science have done so with marked distinction.

The honors lists of the University are so full of feminine names under all subjects that it is difficult to choose examples. In the faculty of arts, first-class honors have been taken every year by women in classics, English, French, German, mathematics, and mental and moral science. Those who have taken second and third-class honors are too numerous to mention in the small space available here. But this is not all. To be in the honors division at all is distinction enough, whatever class may be awarded, but many are the women who not only have won first-class honors in more than one subject at the same examination, but have also attained the special distinction of a scholarship, exhibition, prize, or medal. These are awarded at the intermediate and degree examinations to "that candidate who shall have distinguished himself the most [in the subject in question] of all the candidates who have passed." The faculty of science records women in the first-class honors division in botany, zoölogy, and experimental physics, some of them holding scholarship marks. Even in law, two women have won second and third-class honors, and this with private study only. Nor does the faculty of medicine tell a different tale. Few women have entered it, but the greater part of those few have notably distinguished themselves. In 1890 a woman took first-class honors in three different subjects with a medal in one of them, and both scholarship and medal in another. But it would be wearisome to proceed further with these examples. I have taken them at random out of pages bristling with names. Every year since their admission the women have been in the honors lists, and every year some woman in some subject has taken the highest honor which can be conferred by the University.

Thus it is no empty claim that the women are on absolutely the same footing as the men. The same examinations and distinctions are open to them, for which the same papers are given and the same University recognition is awarded, as at graduation they receive their degrees with the men from the same platform and in the same academic costume; the only difference being that the Chancellor rises when he presents the diploma to a woman.

ELIZABETH CYNTHIA BARNEY.

ITALY AT THE CROSS-ROADS.

ITALY, March, 1893.

NOT a week passes without the publication of a new book on the actual conditions of this country, on the political situation, on the social, moral, and material ambient in which the masses live, move, and have their being. Of these new publications the most notable are 'L'Italia al Bivio,' by an ex-deputy and very popular Neapolitan, Emilio Giampietro; 'In Sicily: Events and their Causes,' by Napoleone Colajanni, the father of Sicilian socialism (or rather of socialism in Sicily); and 'The Present Conditions of Sicily,' by the Marquis San Giuliano, ex-secretary of agriculture and commerce. The singular unanimity of opinion among men so diametrically opposed to each other in their political tendencies and acts as these three writers proves that the facts which have passed under their notice and led to the conclusions are real, general, and typical indications of the present state of Italy.

"To-day," writes Giampietro, "everything withers, decays, dies. Economical depression has stricken all production, distrust of the morrow is universal among the majority of Italians. A profound discouragement prevails and prevents any initiative. . . . Our chief political men—those who were our leaders in former times, those who united thought and action—seem fossilized; others, unconscious of the actual present. Most of them, weary and hopeless, have all proved themselves incompetent to resolve the difficulties of to-day. To hear them talk, to see them work, is a painful spectacle. The heroes of the Italian revolution seem to believe that time will stand still in their hands; for them thirty years of new life have passed over their heads unheeded. No throbs, no breath, no aspiration of modern life (*modernità*) has vibrated in their souls. They believe that all problems can be resolved by fresh financial sacrifices, and by faith in certain abstract idealities which they imbibed during their legendary revolutions. Worse still, the methods of our public life have allowed vain ignoramus to float on the surface of that life, calling themselves political parties! Does there exist a band of audacious men able to save the country from the abyss into which it may at any moment tumble? One thing is certain: either a government must be found radically to transform all that has hitherto been effected in administration or finance, or the country will of its own accord effect a complete demolition of all that exists politically."

He examines the state of parties or the heterogeneous groups which style themselves parties; demonstrates their vacuity, vanity, nonentity; bears down on the preachers of class hatred and class war. He admits: "We can come to terms with socialist democratic evolutionists like Colajanni, who, while educating, preparing the masses for the realization of their ideal, claim and proclaim meanwhile that series of reforms, that sum of moral and material benefits, possible within the limits of our present social organization, which commence with the family and end in Parliament. Further than this we cannot go." Nor could any honest lover of Italy and humanity go further, to land in anarchy and anarchy's favorite theory of the *lotta di classe*. In the chapter on the State budgets the writer appalls one; the figures quietly put down take one's breath away. Nor does the budget of the nation restore one to hope; the State, the province, the commune, associations, individuals, have spent, squandered all that they had—all that they had not. Hence failures, bankruptcy, stoppage of banks, no credit, no reserve to fall back upon. And the remedy? Retrenchment in all quarters, in every department, in every item; in public, in private—or universal bankruptcy and irretrievable disgrace.

In the chapter on "Anarchy, Socialism,

Revolution," Giampietro speaks bravely and well. While some madmen call for war as a solution, others demand a revolution, but he says: "I do not understand a revolution without an organic conception, a preparation, a precisely determined goal." When one is not inclined to do one's duty in dreary, drudging, distasteful daily life, it sounds fine to talk of "higher duties," "wider missions," "nobler aims." What each Italian has to do to-day is to cut his coat according to his cloth, not to spend all that he can beg, steal or borrow (the awful volumes just published on the bank scandals justify the phrase) on his own or his family's pleasures, luxury, and vanity. He must bring himself *not* to wring the last drop of blood from the starving peasant and the wretched artisan in the shape of usury, or the lowest possible wage and the highest possible taxation put upon the weakest shoulders. This is a point on which writers in general love not to dwell.

Giampietro is of those who believe that vast reductions might be made in the war budgets without reducing the strength of the army; and you remember that Ricotti, a great military authority, expressed his belief that this was feasible, and for that reason was not invited to enter the ministry. Next comes the question of the agricultural populations. They are starving, and the land is untilled, or so tilled as not to return the cost of labor and seed. But waste land there is and idle hands to till it. Now, however, agriculture is an industry; without capital, what use to give land to the peasant? But there is capital also in the charitable establishments, in the banks that have no shareholders; apply the capital to the land and set the peasants to work. Ah, but the tax-gatherer who pounces down and clears the peasant and his crops off the land! Here it is that Colajanni comes in with his figures, which are in some respects more terrible than Giampietro's. He dwells solely on Sicily, the causes of the late events. He writes:

"I told the ministry, the House, the public, more than a year ago, what would happen if some remedy was not found for the gaunt misery, the absolute destitution of our agricultural populations. I entreated them to act while there was yet time; I warned them that, in the midst of earnest and honest helpers of these sufferers, there were bad men and (I believe) provocative agents. What have you done? You have killed deliberately, you have ordered or allowed our soldiers to kill, 13 peasants at Caltavuturo, . . . 95 Italian citizens in all, shot down in cold blood. The people have killed but one soldier, one official. Some 300 were wounded; hundreds are in the prisons or sentenced to enormous punishments, varying from five to twenty-five years in the galleys; over a thousand are sent to *domicilio coatto*; numbers have escaped to the mountains, caves, and other hiding-places of innocent men, who must now either steal or starve."

Colajanni enumerates the causes which have intensified misery and led up inevitably to protest, to orderly and legitimate attempts at amelioration; finally to disorder and open rebellion. These causes I have already pointed to in the *Nation*—the huge *latifondi*, where all the meagre crops are produced by the tillers of the soil, who starve and die of inanition and disease while the proprietor, the *gabellotto*, the sub-renter, the partitioner, divide the spoil. And if Colajanni's description of the state of the peasantry be called in question, we answer that the pictures drawn by the Marquis San Giuliano are still more harrowing:

"The campaigns [of the *latifondi*] are unhealthy, there is no drinkable water. The proprietors live in the great cities; the peasants are massed in large centres which are administered selfishly by the burgher class, who

starve and despoil the peasants with taxes on the poorest food, the hearth tax, the tax on their animals, and, above all, by usury. They must walk miles to their work, sleep in wigwams or in the open. Such was their condition when Sonnino wrote, such it was till yesterday—and now things have grown worse. One can hardly imagine a 'worse,' all was so bad; but it has come to this, otherwise how is it that suddenly, from a state of supine and traditional resignation, we have seen the outburst of the powerful and organized movement of to-day? This cannot be attributed to the propaganda of agitators, which, even if ably conducted, could not, in an unprepared soil, have produced such a radical transformation without the powerful auxiliary of increased material suffering. This increasing misery has facilitated the propaganda, of course; has reawakened the class hatred latent among the toilers throughout the island, and is the offspring, not of socialistic doctrines and tendencies, but of the frequent abuses, spoliation, and oppression of the burgher class in the rural centres. The hatred of the masses extends not only to the great proprietors, but to burghers fat and lean—the so-called *civili*, *galantuomini*, or *cappellati*, of the rural communes. After long periods of calm, this hatred explodes from time to time with terrible ferocity, and one hour of bloodshed and destruction makes the guilty and innocent alike expiate the errors and abuses of an entire class."

Speaking of the crops of late years, San Giuliano says: "Often, when the moment comes for the division of the grain, the peasants, after the subtraction of the seed and succor with the usurious interest detained, go home with next to nothing—sometimes without a single handful!" After enumerating the disasters produced by foreign competition in the sulphur, green fruit, and other agricultural industries, the diminution of the wine trade, both he and Colajanni show the effects of Italy's fiscal policy on the small proprietors. Colajanni gives a list of small proprietors who have been evicted by the *fisco* for inability to pay the tax on land or buildings during the last ten years. Province per province, in the single communes, he gives the figures as far as he has been able to verify them personally. They amount to 16,662 families.

When Crispi was summoned to the helm, hope reawoke. The state of siege was condoned because of the promises that accompanied it of immediate and efficacious redress. Three months have passed. The military tribunals sit and condemn. Some of their sentences are atrocious; one has been partly cancelled by the courts of cassation. It was affirmed that on the King's birthday a general amnesty would be proclaimed. Instead of this, the trials continue. Sicily and Massa Carrara are still in a stage of siege. The minister of finance put the deficit for the year at 170,000,000 lire; pledged himself, if plenipotentiary powers were conceded, to find 70,000,000 by economizing, but the remainder must be forthcoming from fresh taxation. The two war-tenths on land were to be reinforced, the income tax not to be progressive as was proposed previously, but raised from 13 to 20 per cent., and (this the unkindest cut of all) the tax on salt to be increased 8 per cent. Salt now costs, owing to the Government monopoly, thirty-five centimes per kilo; it is hereafter to cost forty centimes. This, in a country where salt is the only corrective, the only sauce, to *polenta*, which produces, when it forms the sole staple food of the poor, the horrible disease known as *pellagra*.

A commission of fifteen is sitting to examine these financial propositions. The commissioners say that the deficit is exaggerated; they reduce it to 100,000,000, demand that 20,000,000 be found by economies in the war budgets, and suggest other expedients. As the House has adjourned for the Easter holidays until April

2, nothing can be ascertained as to the result of the conferences between the minister and the commission. It is pretty positively asserted that Crispi, if the House refuse the plenipotentiary powers demanded, will appeal to the country. It was expected that a reduction in the civil list would be proposed. The King of Italy, with his fifteen millions and hundred palaces, has a far higher civil list than Queen Victoria. Sella, when he imposed fresh taxation on the nation, reduced the old King's civil list. The Left, on coming to power, increased it. We are quite aware that King Humbert paid off his father's debts, refusing the assistance of the nation, that he maintains the household of the heir apparent, and spends much in private and public charity. But the bare fact that a minister has dared, under the auspices of Crispi, to propose a further increase in the price of salt ought to mean that even the widow's mite is needful; hence the rich man's luxury ought to be curtailed.

We shall see what comes of the very excellent projects which have been concerted between the minister of agriculture and the Sicilian deputies for the sulphur mines and the agricultural contracts. If the present House, born of corruption more corrupt than any former one (and that is saying much), should vote these bills, it would be a sign of possible purification. Hope costs nothing, but when we read the proposals of the agricultural association which demands a tax on corn to amount to nine lire per quintal (the tax at present is five lire), we confess that hopes grow dim.

J. W. M.

Correspondence.

OFFICIAL FEES AND APPOINTMENTS IN ONTARIO, CANADA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The Government of Ontario has appointed commissioners to investigate and report upon facts concerning proposed changes in the system of appointing certain officials and the manner of paying them. At present, these appointments are made by the executive Government; it is proposed in some quarters to have these officers (whose functions are within counties) elected by the people, or, in the alternative, selected by county councils. At present they are paid by fees, or by a proportion of fees—the rest of the fees being applied to county or other purposes. It is proposed in some quarters to have these officers paid by fixed salaries. The officers are sheriffs, registrars (or recorders) of deeds, local masters (in chancery), county crown (or prosecuting) attorneys, registrars and other clerks of courts of superior, intermediate, and subordinate jurisdiction (i. e., in the High Court, the County Court, and the Division Court) as organized in the different counties.

Information is now sought through your columns as to the sources from which authentic details can be obtained concerning the manner and amount of the remuneration of like local officials in the various States of the Union, and also as to the source and amount of remuneration of like officers appointed by the Federal Government of the United States—such as marshals, district attorneys, etc. A reference to books or official publications or the names of public officers or others from whom such information could be compendiously obtained is sought by the commissioners in order to expedite and benefit their investigations.

Believing that the mention of this need in your journal will lead to its being speedily satisfied, I am,

Respectfully yours,

ONE OF THE COMMISSIONERS.

TORONTO, April 9, 1894.

THE SITUATION IN SOUTH CAROLINA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: South Carolina may be described as a one-city State. That city is Charleston. Columbia, although the capital on account of its central site, is comparatively a small place (12,000 inhabitants), has very few if any manufacturing interests, and does not possess any trade worth the name except that which is purely local. The other towns in the State are little more than country villages; the largest being Spartanburg (9,000), Beaufort (5,000), and Greenville (5,000).

Charleston is a very old and a very opulent city—one of the richest cities for its size in the United States. It has about 60,000 inhabitants, 30,000 of whom are negroes. It has a large trade with South Carolina and neighboring States, and ships its phosphates and cotton all over the United States and direct to England. The wholesale grocery business finds there a very important centre. There are also a number of wealthy cotton and rice factors. The business which has been extremely profitable in Charleston for years past, mainly as an adjunct of the corner-grocery stores, has been the liquor business with negroes. Most of the corner grocery-stores in Charleston had, up to the 1st of July last, a groggery annex. The negro, while he is an excellent and capable workman, is also a hopeless spendthrift. So it happened that a large proportion of his wages found their way every Saturday night into the hands of the corner grocer, who had been trusting him through the week for his groceries and liquors. This liquor trade was morally all wrong, encouraging as it did, in the most illiterate and unbridled element of the population, a taste for the unlimited consumption of strong drink. But the trade was carried on honestly and in an orderly manner, and open drunkenness was not any more noticeable in Charleston among the negroes than among the lower classes in Northern cities.

When the dispensary law went into effect on July 1, 1894, all this liquor business was wiped out in one day. All the corner groggeries became a thing of the past, and all the East Bay Street wholesale houses closed their doors. One East Bay firm of wholesale grocers and liquor-dealers disposed of some \$100,000 worth of choice wines and liquors at public sale on the 29th and 30th of June, 1893. It was not possible that their means of livelihood should be thus swept away from so many of the citizens of Charleston and elsewhere throughout the State at one fell blow without creating bad blood between the liquor-dealers and the executive which had thus ruined their trade. Most of them, however, left Charleston and the State, and began business over again elsewhere.

But there were far more vital grounds of antagonism between the Governor and his Populist party and what he styles the "Bourbon" element, or prevalent "oligarchy," which means the wealthy, intellectual, and aristocratic classes. I am a Northern man by birth and instinct, but I have lived a great deal in the South of late years, and I am anxious that the intelligent classes here should understand exactly how the old, ante-bellum Southern element is now handicapped, and how it feels.

It will be necessary to make very plain statements where so much misunderstanding exists, but I will try to explain the situation without hurting any one's sensibilities intentionally. The Populist party in South Carolina is largely composed of "Farmers' Alliance" men. This class as a whole is averse to hard work and keenly jealous of those who possess a larger share of this world's goods than do they. I have traversed the State of South Carolina again and again, on its trains, and have always been amazed to notice the great multitude of white men (mainly farmers from appearance) congregated at the depots. This concourse had, apparently, come together, not to board the train (for the bulk of patrons of Southern local trains are negroes), but simply to kill time and enjoy a better opportunity for the pleasant interchange of ideas. The Populists of South Carolina are famous talkers. They are unusually intelligent for their surroundings, are extremely clever at finance, and no doubt able to make themselves felt in almost any profession or branch of trade; but they will not work. Everything is done for them by the negro laborers.

These men are mainly descendants of the ante-bellum Southern planter (with some admixture of "carpet-bagging" stock); and, shorn of their property in the shape of negroes, and hence of their means, have never been able to readjust themselves to the changed condition of affairs. Prevented from providing themselves with the luxuries or accomplishments of life, they have preserved the pride, but lost the cultivation and well-to-do appearance, of their parents. They have certainly never been able to bring themselves, with any assiduity, to the day-in-and-day-out drudgery of work. Out of this class has Benjamin R. Tillman sprung. He and his fellow-Populists have developed a deep and enduring hatred of the rich and aristocratic class; and as this class is chiefly to be found in Charleston, Charleston is hated by the Populists of South Carolina. Gov. Tillman, before his election, threatened to make Charleston "whistle" if he got into power. And the minute he was elected he proceeded to put his threat into execution. The first descent of his constables was made upon Charleston. The circumstances attending their raid were such as to drive into fury even those who were "as patient as sheep." Private houses were entered in the pretended search for liquors, the contents of trunks and bureau-drawers strewn on the floor, and, in one case, the sheets and blankets torn off a bed in which a man's sick wife was lying.

The people of Charleston, though exasperated beyond all endurance, acted upon this occasion with firmness and great self-control. They acted just as one would hope that people of good repute, extensive cultivation, and great common sense would act. They protested firmly against the lawless employment of executive power, but did not allow themselves to be driven into the unthinking frenzy of bloodshed and retaliation which Tillman expected. Since then he has tried all expedients, but in vain, with the idea of getting the "Bourbon" classes to retaliate, and so throw themselves into his clutches. At the time when some negroes were lynched in the interior of the State, he endeavored to transfer St. Julien Jervay, the district attorney of Charleston, out of his own district and into that where the lynching had occurred (Edgefield, I think it was), that he might act as prosecuting attorney, and suffer the odium which the prosecution of the murderers would locally create. As the Popu-

list class is in the great majority, and can prolong the present crisis indefinitely, it may finally succeed in goading the long-suffering Bourbons into mad retaliation. The better class of the citizens of South Carolina thus stand in great need of sympathy and support from the orderly and intelligent portion of Northern communities. M. D.

PHILADELPHIA, April 9, 1894.

POSTAL-UNION CARDS AND STAMPS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It would be of great advantage to travellers if the countries which form the Postal Union would, at their next convention, take up the subject of Postal-Union stamps and Postal-Union cards. What I mean is this: Supposing a person starts out from New York, he could provide himself with five-cent stamps, the rate of postage, or two-cent postal cards which have International Postal Union printed on them, so that they could be used everywhere. Or should you be in Germany, you would buy their Postal-Union stamps and cards which could be used in England or Norway, or anywhere else till you had exhausted the supply, and a new quantity would be bought. As it now is, when you land in Bremen, or Southampton, or elsewhere, you must first hunt up the post-office, perhaps you must have money exchanged before you can drop a letter or card home, or on leaving that country the stamps you have are of no value elsewhere.

Then another feature of great importance in having these Postal-Union stamps would be that it often happens that persons see books or little things advertised in foreign periodicals that cost perhaps a shilling, a mark, or even a franc. Now it does not pay to go and buy an international postal order for so small an amount, and it would be useless to send stamps to that amount of the country in which you live, because the party receiving them cannot use them or dispose of them. But had we the Postal-Union stamps, the recipient could use them in his foreign correspondence, or sell them to some one else who had such correspondence. Altogether the governments connected with the Postal Union will see of how much benefit to the public the proposed issue of stamps would be. H. T. FRUEAUFF.

EASTON, PA., April 13, 1894.

A CORRECTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a very kindly review of my 'Essays on Rural Hygiene,' which appeared in your paper of March 9, there is a slight misrepresentation of my views, caused, I have little doubt, by a printer's error. The review says: "In the presence of cesspools and pipes, surface wells, carefully defended against lateral infection and properly covered, are the safest, even in the midst of ground fertilized with domestic refuse." If for the word "presence" (which I have italicized) the word "absence" be substituted, my views will be correctly stated.—Your obedient servant,

G. V. POORE, M.D.

30 WIMPOLE ST., W., LONDON, March 29, 1894.

[Dr. Poore's surmise is entirely correct. The slip was of the pen or of the type. Dr. Poore's own words (pp. 241-2) are: "How have they [the shallow wells] been contaminated? . . . They

have always been contaminated by direct inflow of filth from the surface of the ground . . . or by the leakage of cesspools or sewers direct into the well."

"The cause of the fouling of shallow wells is universally found in a neighboring cesspool or sewer." "If the subterranean collections of filth were abolished, and if our surface wells were properly constructed, we might drink of them with perfect safety." He then describes the construction of his own well, which is five feet deep with impermeable sides, and a parapet one foot above the surface, and a tightly fitting cover, so that the water enters only through the bottom. He adds (p. 244): "If there be sewers or cesspools in the neighborhood of a well, such well cannot be safe, be it shallow or deep." We regret the error leading to this correction, but are glad to explain the author's views in detail. For, notwithstanding we continue to think it is a doubtful doctrine, on account of the almost inevitable errors of construction or the accidents of decay, Dr. Poore writes so clearly and enthusiastically that he deserves the most accurate expression of his views. It is hard enough to be a reformer without being misrepresented even by accident.—ED. NATION.]

GREEN BAY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: If your reviewer of 'Historic Green Bay' (*Nation*, No. 1501, p. 259) be correct in his statement, "The truth is, that on the map above mentioned neither of the names Green Bay and Baye Verte is to be found at all," will he kindly explain what Mr. Justin Winsor means by "B. Verte" on the map of "Hennepin, 1697," on page 251, volume iv., of 'Narrative and Critical History of America'?

Very respectfully, D. S. KELLOGG.

PLATTSBURGH, N. Y., April 8, 1894.

[We had overlooked this smaller map of Hennepin's, which bears the same date as the larger one given on pp. 252, 253. However, we read "R. Verte," and apply it to the adjacent river, while the name of what is now Green Bay is written across the shaded water and appears to be Baye des Puans.—ED. NATION.]

THE WIVES OF GERMAN PROFESSORS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your number for April 12 I find a sweeping denial from your correspondent "E. L. W." of a statement of mine in a previous issue of your paper, concerning the wives and daughters of German professors. As your correspondent writes from "intimate association with a very large circle of professors' families," I must conclude either that my own experience was phenomenally exceptional, or that your correspondent's standard and my own differ materially. As "E. L. W." remarks, German girls leave school at sixteen or seventeen—the age at which, in countries where it is to be had at all, the higher education for women begins;

the age at which the German youth is still doing the preparatory work for his higher education, which goes on till he is twenty-three, twenty-five, or even thirty years of age. It was with the standard of this higher education that I measured them, and came to the conclusion which, with all due deference to your correspondent's opinion, I must still adhere to.

I should like to add, however, that I do not consider the German women responsible for these conditions, which are their misfortune rather than their fault. The higher education has been exclusively in the hands of the men, and only for the men, who have kept the women out and then stigmatized them as inferior because they did not possess it. To hear the average German professor or student speak of women and their intellectual capacity is as depressing to one of the unfortunate sex as a Mohammedan's view of heaven.

Your correspondent also scouts the idea that American women have done pioneer work in regard to the admission of women to the German universities. Yet Americans have been attending these universities for ten years, and the German women are only now beginning to do so. J. B. S.

NEW YORK, April 14, 1894.

THE VERTEBRÆ OF FISHES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a review of the 'Wildier Quarter-Century Book,' in your issue of March 29, among other pieces of off-hand theorizing, your reviewer says:

"Taking a particular genus [of fishes], it is seen at once that the active species preying on the others have more vertebrae than the others that grope about the rocks and mud in the same waters."

In the whole class of fishes not a single illustration of this astonishing generalization has been found. There is no truth whatever in it.

The fact to be explained is, that as a rule members of the same group having different numbers of vertebrae do not inhabit the same waters. The resident shore fishes of the tropics have, in general, vertebrae in small numbers, and their allies in cold waters, in the deep seas, in the fresh waters, as well as the pelagic forms generally, show a progressive increase in the number of segments. This rule applies to carnivorous and herbivorous fishes alike, and it has no evident correlation with variations in habits, in food, or in degree of activity.

I recognize, of course, that a conceivable explanation of this, as of other cases of adaptation, is possible along "Lamarckian" as well as along "Darwinian" lines. Such an explanation is, however, not obvious unless it can be shown that a varied food-supply tends to accelerate skeletal evolution.

DAVID S. JORDAN.

LELAND STANFORD JUNIOR UNIVERSITY,
PALO ALTO, April 5, 1894.

[The above is characterized by emphasis rather than accuracy. Prof. Jordan may rest assured that the generalization which so astonished him can be illustrated, that there is truth in it, that members of the same group of fishes having different numbers of vertebrae do inhabit the same waters, and that correlation with habits is evident; his very positive assertions to the contrary notwithstanding. To answer his challenge

and induce a reasonable amount of caution in future, it is hereby suggested that he add to his knowledge of the fishes an acquaintance with "a single illustration of this astonishing generalization" that complies with the conditions required, viz., the genus *Orestias*, represented by a number of species in Lake Titicaca on the summits of the Peruvian Andes. *Orestias Pentlandii* has more vertebrae than *O. Cuvieri*; either has more than *O. Agassizii* or *O. Mulleri*, and the others have fewer. All are in the same water. The more active have the more vertebrae. Let him go farther and compare the fishes of this cold lake with an allied genus, *Anableps*, of still greater activity in its peculiar feeding habit, and he will find much larger numbers of vertebrae in its lively species down in the warmer waters under the equator. More numerous vertebrae in these fishes correlate with habit or activity, but are directly opposed to what is demanded by the temperature theory. These illustrations are sufficient for our present purpose.—ED. NATION.]

DESCENDANTS OF CROMWELL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The following extract is from a letter of Franklin, dated Philadelphia, 1736, addressed to his sister, Jane Franklin, residing in Boston. He is speaking of the number of deaths from smallpox:

"In one family in my neighborhood there appeared a great mortality. Mr. George Claypole (a descendant of Oliver Cromwell) had by industry acquired a great estate, and being in excellent business, a merchant, would probably have doubled it had he lived according to the common course of years. He died first, suddenly; within a short time died his best negro; then one of his children; then a negro woman; then two children more, buried at the same time, then two more; so that I saw two double burials come out of his house in one week. None were left in the family but the mother and one child, and both of these lives till lately despaired of."

Can any of your readers answer the following questions: Was George Claypole, above-mentioned, related to Cromwell? Are any descendants of the mother and child who escaped the smallpox in 1736, now living?

Very respectfully,

S. T. A.

WASHINGTON, April 13, 1894.

Notes.

FUNK & WAGNALLS CO. promise for May 'Isabella of Castile,' by Maj.-Gen. O. O. Howard; and 'John Brown and his Men,' by Col. Richard J. Hinton—the final volume in the "American Reformers Series," in which the anti-slavery reform has certainly not been neglected. Col. Hinton has gathered together twenty portraits of John Brown's men which will illustrate his narrative, along with more than one of the crusader himself.

G. P. Putnam's Sons will follow up Miss Harraden's 'Ships that Pass in the Night' with a new novel by the same author, 'In Varying Moods.' They announce further 'The Upper Berth,' by F. Marion Crawford, and 'Red Cap and Blue Jacket,' by George Dunn.

The handy "Columbian Knowledge Series,"

edited by Prof. Todd of Amherst, and published by Roberts Bros., Boston, which has just begun with Mrs. Todd's 'Total Eclipses of the Sun,' proceeds with 'Public Libraries in America,' by William I. Fletcher, librarian of Amherst College, who will also have a volume apart from the series on 'Library Classification.' The same publishers have nearly ready 'Wayside Sketches,' by Eben J. Loomis.

A volume of anthropometric papers, consisting of such as were presented at the sessions of the International Statistical Institute in Chicago last September, and are shortly to appear in No. 24 of the Publications of the American Statistical Association, will be issued by this body in May. It will be enlarged by a paper on the growth of St. Louis children, by Dr. W. T. Porter, and by Dr. Henry P. Bowditch's well-known paper on the growth of Massachusetts children (1887). The secretary of the association is Davis R. Dewey, No. 497 Boylston Street, Boston.

Encouraged by the welcome given last year to her 'How to Know the Wild Flowers,' Mrs. William Starr Dana has prepared a second rambler's guide which she calls 'According to Season' (Scribners). The name indicates the book's plan, which is to group together the flowers that may be found in bloom about the same time, placing the groups in orderly succession so that a wayfaring man, if not a fool, may know not only what the flowers are which he has found, but also what he may hopefully look for from the time the swamp maple first crimson the bleached branchage of the wood till the melancholy days when the witch-hazel's yellow tassels are the only visible reminiscence or prophecy of spring. As a companion to this little volume, which lacks illustrations, the same publishers issue a portfolio containing fifty plates from 'How to Know the Wild Flowers'—pictures so truthfully drawn that the plants they represent may be easily recognized even without the help of color.

That enthusiasm for flowers which prompted her as a child to worship like any Parsee the barbaric splendors of her marigolds, speaks from every page of Mrs. Celia Thaxter's 'An Island Garden' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). Its brilliant binding and pictures glowing with orange and vermilion from Childe Hassam's lavish palette are strictly in keeping with the text, where exclamation-points abound; written, evidently, for the delight of those who share the same midsummer madness, and not requiring the approval of one who looks without excitement upon a flaming poppy or a stately group of hollyhocks.

An extremely opportune book at the present day, when the mining of gold has received a fresh impetus from the temporary decline in value of its sister metal, silver, is the 'Handbook of Gold-milling,' by Henry Louis (Macmillan). It is a scientific discussion from a practical standpoint, by a competent mining engineer, of the various mechanical and chemical processes in use at the present day for extracting gold from such of its ores as are not capable of complete disintegration by the action of roasting. No such discussion devoted exclusively to gold-milling has, so far as we know, hitherto been made. Modern improvements in gold-milling are largely of American origin, especially the mechanical ones, but it seems rather an advantage than a disadvantage that their relative merits should be discussed by an Englishman, when, as in this case, he shows a thorough familiarity with American appliances and practice, for his opinions must be more impartial, and are derived from a broader experience, taking in

as it does the important gold fields of Australia and South Africa. The opening chapters are devoted to the mineralogical and chemical properties of gold and its alloys and amalgams, but, singularly enough, omit all discussion of its combinations with tellurium. The author shows thorough familiarity with his subject, and expresses himself clearly and concisely in not too technical language. His book should be of great value not only to the mill superintendent, but also to the intelligent mine-owner.

The Century Company have published, under the title of 'Famous Adventures and Prison Escapes of the Civil War,' a collection of noteworthy papers which originally appeared in the *Magazine*. Among them are the 'War Diary of a Union Woman,' edited by Mr. Cable; 'Morgan's Raiders,' by Gen. Basil Duke; 'A Hard Road out of Dixie,' by Mr. Shelton; 'General Breckinridge's Escape,' by Col. Wood, and a number of other famous and to become famous stories of the war. What with the De Vinne presswork and the numerous admirable illustrations, this beautiful duodecimo would be hard to match among the war-books, whether for matter or for form. It is an attractive volume for readers of all ages, but it is safe to say it will be preëminently a classic "boy's book" and a favorite.

'Kleopatra,' Georg Ebers's latest production, which we have received from the Deutsche Verlagsanstalt, through B. Westermann & Co., and an English translation of which is announced by the Putnams, is perhaps the most academic of all the academic performances of this professorial novelist, without a trace of genuine poetic intuition and overloaded with wearisome and irrelevant detail. One cannot help wondering why English and American readers should, year after year, be afflicted with translations of such tedious and lifeless elaborations as this, while the truly representative men of modern German literature, such as Gottfried Keller, Konrad Ferdinand Meyer, Hamerling, Rosegger, Sudermann, remain almost unknown. The same firm sends us a volume of 'Gedichte' by Georg Scherer, the well-known editor of the 'Deutscher Dichterswald,' which betray a respectable talent and refinement of feeling, but very little originality. A number of translations from English and American poets may amuse the curious.

Littell & Co., Boston, send us the bound volume of their *Living Age*, for January-March, 1894, the 200th in the series which men in middle life can now look back upon as one which no gentleman's library should be without. It is worthy of remark that this veteran eclectic should have maintained itself for fifty years, in spite of direct competition, and through all the vicissitudes of ever-cheapening literature, piracy, and copyright.

The *Overland Monthly* for April is almost wholly given up to the Midwinter Fair at San Francisco, which is illustrated in a great variety of ways with text and cut. The chapter on the architecture of the buildings is unexpectedly laudatory, though it is obvious from the pictures that, considered in itself, the architecture stands much in need of an apologist. Indeed, the writer himself is "inclined to doubt the desirability of housing the Fine Arts in an Egyptian temple."

The illustrations in *Around the World* for April (Philadelphia: Contemporary Publishing Co.) continue to show great judgment in selection. Three recent books of travel are laid under contribution much in the way formerly pursued by *Harper's Magazine*.

The *Geographical Journal* for April opens with a pleasant description of a journey into the interior of Iceland by Dr. K. Grossmann, in which an account of the remarkable cave of Surtshellir is the most striking part. The paper is illustrated by a map and a number of pictures from the author's photographs, giving a very vivid representation of the peculiar scenery of the island. The sultanate of Johore, occupying the most southerly portion of the Malay peninsula, is the subject of the following article by Mr. H. Lake. At present it is mainly a pathless wilderness, but Chinese agriculturists are settling in it in large numbers, and, though twice as numerous as the Malays, they make very contented and peaceful subjects. They occupy themselves chiefly with cultivating pepper and gambier. This is a product, employed for tanning, obtained from boiling the leaves and twigs of a climbing shrub (*Uncaria gambir*). We have noticed several inconsistencies in the orthography of the place-names as given in the article and upon the accompanying map. Mr. H. N. Dickson treats of the recent contributions to oceanography made especially by the "Plankton Expedition" of 1889 in the Atlantic and by the Prince of Monaco. Baron F. von Richthofen contributes a rather technical review of the first volume of Count Széchenyi's travels in eastern Asia.

Miss Annie R. Taylor, who has recently made an adventurous journey in Tibet, in an interesting article in the *National Review* endeavors to correct a false impression in respect to the political condition of that country, which is treated in such standard books of reference as the 'Statesman's Year-Book' and 'Whitaker's Almanac' as an integral part of the Chinese Empire. Dr. Henry Lansdell, in his 'Chinese Central Asia,' just published, says that it is "under the viceroy of Szechuen." The Tibetans, however, "disclaim Chinese rule altogether," except in the two eastern provinces, where it is "more or less nominal." In the other provinces the resident mandarins have authority over their countrymen alone, and merely defend Chinese trade interests. One proof of this independence is shown in the rigid exclusion of Chinese women from Tibet, even the wives of officials being turned back at the border. The connection of the two countries consists mainly in the payment of a yearly tribute by the emperor to the dalai lama. This amounts to "about one hundred thousand ounces of silver, and some ten thousand yak loads of tea." For this the lamas, who form a third of the male population, give China a monopoly of their foreign trade, as well as the power of levying taxes in the two eastern provinces. Miss Taylor repeats, what other travellers have asserted, that the Tibetans are restive under this arrangement, and would much prefer to trade directly with India, the route being shorter and less dangerous. By the Sikkim-Tibet convention, which has just been signed, British subjects are to be allowed to trade, except in certain specified articles, at Yatung on the Tibetan side of the frontier for five years.

The official list of new publications in India is very significant of the great change in that country within the last half-century. While, forty years ago, in Madras the publications of a year were but a handful, now they number a thousand in twenty different languages. The total for the whole of India, according to the last report, was 7,045. Of these, 1,580 were on religion, 989 on language, 928 on poetry, and 336 on science; fiction, medicine, law, and the drama each numbering between two and three

hundred. The smallest numbers were travel 17, and politics 14. The native librarians, in their quarterly reports to the Government, complain, however, that works of merit are very rare, although they do find evidences of improvement, both in the talent and the moral tone of the works submitted to them. Pandit Hara Prasad Shastri, after stating that he had received for registration in the Province of Bengal 2,177 publications in 1891, of which 1,813 were original works, 364 republications and translations, adds: "Of the original works, about two hundred are books possessing more or less merit; the rest are keys, school-books, missionary leaflets, and street literature. The republications are generally of some value." At other times, says *Dawn in India*, from which we have taken these facts, "he, along with the other librarians, laments over the low morality of native works, pandering to the worst appetites of corrupt natures."

We have received from Dyrssen & Pfeiffer (F. W. Christern) No. 1 of the monthly *Bulletin de l'Office du Travail*, published under the auspices of the French Ministry of Commerce. It will certainly merit the attention of all those who are concerned in the amelioration of the lot of the working classes. Its scheme falls into three parts—the social movement (a) in France and (b) abroad, and official acts and documents. Four closely packed pages are devoted to the state of legislation (bills) relating to social and labor questions before the French Parliament on January 1, 1894. A table of strikes for 1893 shows a total of 607, out of which 112 succeeded, 193 only partly succeeded or were compromised, and 223 were defeated, with 79 unreported. The year witnessed twice as many strikes as occurred in any one of the three preceding years.

The new weekly edition of the *Journal des Débats* (New York: Westermann) is a quarto of thirty-two pages with no pretensions to typographical elegance, and without even the inducement of continuous pagination to preserve and bind it; successive issues are identified only by the date. All this implies that there will be no index, and therefore that those who might wish to preserve the numbers will be discouraged. We hope the editors may at the beginning of July put a higher estimate on the enduring worth of their convenient summary. The table of contents embraces general political articles by well-known writers; foreign intelligence in brief orderly array; reviews of the stage, of science, of literature; notes, of news and comment; reports of learned bodies, of the courts; sport and fashion items; necrology; list of books received, etc., etc. The price of this weekly is \$5.75 per annum, or \$3 for six months, subscriptions beginning with any issue.

The *Débats* for March 30 prints a correspondence between Talleyrand and Alexander I., which manifests the Emperor's distrust of the prince diplomat. On September 15, 1810, Talleyrand coolly requests that 1,500,000 francs be placed to his credit at Frankfurt. Alexander excuses himself on the ground of appearances and of duty to his country. The documents were lately published, from copies believed to be authentic, in a respectable review, the *Ruskaya Starina*.

The fine Atlas of the German Empire edited by Dr. C. Vogel (Gotha: Perthes; New York: Westermann) has just been worthily completed by an index which fills 65 pages of seven columns each in fine type. Such a list is a great accession to the common gazetteer, and is by itself worth the price (3 marks). The same firm sends us the second instalment of

the Spruner Sieglin Ancient Atlas, and the fifth and sixth of Paul Langhans's German Colonial Atlas; these last accompanied by very valuable lists of the sources of the maps—186, for instance, in the case of the map of the New Guinea protectorate. The sheet showing German trade at home has curious side maps with colored rings designating the kinds of industry in chosen districts, with comparisons.

From Dietrich Reimer, Berlin, comes the fifth part of Kiepert's Grand Atlas, with its customary apparatus of statistical tables and current indexes. Fine maps of Greece, Italy, and Switzerland are among the present series. The minuteness is almost up to the capacity of eyesight, as respects the names of places.

The Department of Library Economy of the Amherst (Mass.) Summer School is to open on July 2 and close on August 4, under the direction of Mr. William I. Fletcher, who will lecture daily as if to raw beginners. He should be addressed as above for particulars.

The Bibliographical Society (London) was founded in 1822 for the use by its members of works connected with Bibliography, and for the general promotion of bibliographical studies. The roll of the society, which now stands at 203, will be closed on May 30, after which candidates will be admitted only to fill vacancies and on payment of an entrance fee. Any one interested in bibliography before whom the objects of the society have not hitherto been brought, and who wishes to join it before the roll is closed, is invited to communicate with the Hon. Secretary, A. W. Pollard, No. 13 Cheniston Gardens, London, W. Public libraries and institutions are admitted to membership.

Mr. M. D. Conway writes in protest against our phrase "purely conjectural" applied to the early pieces in his first volume of Paine's Writings. "More or less conjectural" would have been nearer to our meaning, though this, too, is disputed by Mr. Conway, who says that Nos. 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 were collected by Paine's friends and contemporaries, and "have been circulated in American and English editions of Paine for seventy-five years." He adds:

"I will only say, in conclusion, that the number of Paine's writings is so large that they can only with difficulty be compressed into the four volumes proposed. It is necessary to economize in the matter of prefaces and annotations, and I have assumed, perhaps too confidently, that those who desire more information than is given in my editorial notes would refer to my 'Life of Paine.' The public may rest assured that our space is too precious to be lightly conceded to articles of doubtful authorship, although in one instance, in vol. i, I have inserted as 'probably by Paine' a very brief essay published by Paine, 'Thoughts on Defensive War,' thinking there might be room for a hypercritical doubt."

—The New York Mathematical Society now embraces among its members every mathematician of note in the United States and Canada. A change in its style to the American Mathematical Society seems appropriate and may soon be made. Its monthly Bulletin is an extremely useful publication, filling a want which had previously been felt. At its recent meeting, Prof. Woolsey Johnson gave an account of Prof. Greenhill's latest proposed compromise between gravitational and absolute units. This brought on, quite inevitably, a lively discussion of the whole question, from which everybody carried away the same opinions they brought to it. Mr. C. S. Peirce exhibited an arithmetic of 1424 from the valuable collection of Mr. George A. Plimpton. It is the most extensive work upon the subject of the age to which it belongs. It displays greater

skill than the arithmeticians of those days were supposed to possess, and is a find of which we shall hear more in the future. The author was Rollandus, a Portuguese physician, known for a work upon surgery and another upon physiognomy. He was a minor canon of the Sainte-Chapelle, and a protégé of John of Lancaster, to whom the arithmetic now brought to light bears a flowery dedication.

—The report of the London School of Medicine for Women for the year ending January 8, 1894, is a record of good work and sturdy growth. This English woman's medical college is a teaching and not a degree conferring body, its students being examined and diplomaed by the University of London, the Society of Apothecaries, London, the Royal University of Ireland, and by the Colleges of Physicians and Surgeons in Edinburgh and Glasgow. The report states that last year the Court of the University of St. Andrews, Scotland, granted an application made to them that the lecturers of the London School of Medicine should "be appointed by that university for the instruction of women in medicine"; but the requisite regulations as to the courses of study that will be required for "the medical degree of St. Andrews" have not yet been issued. There are 162 regular and special students now attending the school who receive their practical instruction at the Royal Free Hospital, the school paying to the hospital some \$5,700 annually for the privilege of clinical service. That English medical women do not shirk severe tests of the quality of their work is partly shown by the fact that last year thirty-three students of the school passed the primary examinations of the Society of Apothecaries—a much coveted opportunity, thrown open to women only in 1893. During the past year former students of the London School of Medicine for Women secured the following posts: Assistant anaesthetist, Royal Free Hospital; resident physician at New Hospital for Women; house surgeon, Clapham Maternity Hospital; clinical assistant, N. E. Fever Hospital—London; resident physician, Victoria Hospital for Children—Hull; medical officer in charge of Lady Dufferin's Zenana Hospital—Calcutta; and clinical assistant, Richmond Asylum—Dublin, this being the first public medical appointment in Ireland which has been held by a woman. Few as are the hospital posts open to women physicians in the United States, it appears from this report that English women practitioners are even more handicapped; at present there are in Great Britain only ten medical institutions for women and children which have women physicians on their staff. Of these five are in London, two in Birmingham, and one each in Bristol, Manchester, and in Edinburgh.

—At the conclusion of the thirty-second Congrès des Sociétés Savantes in Paris on March 31, M. Spuller, the Minister of Public Instruction, spoke to the theme, "The Scholar in a Republic," and his words seemed to have been inspired by President Cleveland's address at the Harvard anniversary celebration in 1886, at which M. Spuller was present. He paid a high compliment to Mr. Cleveland in saying that his manly appeal to the cultivated classes to enter bravely into the public life of their time, and not to content themselves with dilettante criticism, made one of the most impressive speeches he had ever heard in his life. M. Spuller's address was received as one of the long-expected elucidations of his vague phrase, "the new spirit," and was full

of hearty words of promise and encouragement for all who will earnestly enter into the work of "pacification and reconciliation which the republican government has undertaken in our country." His reference to other days and other than republican feelings, in the following words, was much applauded: "No doubt regrets are permissible and certain memories are sacred; but, however attached we may be to the past, we do not live for the past. We can study it only in order to know it well, but we live in the present and we work for the future." The Minister at the close of his address distributed the prizes of the year, and made touching reference to the losses by death in the ranks of French scholarship.

—One of the most extraordinary phenomena in the literary history of Germany is the hostility which is still manifested towards Heine, almost forty years after his death—an enmity based in about equal proportions on chauvinism, anti-Semitism, and the wrath naturally felt by Philistines towards men of genius who have lashed them and their ways with scorn and satire. The project of erecting a monument to Heine in his native city of Düsseldorf, a few years ago, met with so much opposition that it was dropped. Soon thereafter the committee took up Mayence as a suitable place, but nothing definite has been done as yet. It is stated on excellent authority that the Empress of Austria, an ardent admirer of Heine, had promised to provide the needed funds from her private purse, but was dissuaded by Herbert Bismarck, acting as the agent of Emperor William. The *Frankfurter-Zeitung* recently secured the opinions of noted German authors on the desirability of erecting a monument to Heine. Among those opposed were Felix Dahn and Ludwig Büchner, while Paul Heyse, L. Brentano, and Spielhagen are among his most prominent champions. Spielhagen took occasion to write this bitter truth about his countrymen: "The German people as a whole have no respect, to say nothing of veneration, for intellectual culture. . . . A nation that has had Goethe and Schiller, and does not yet comprehend that one of the very greatest of our lyric poets deserves a proud monument—truly one might despair of such a nation." The cudgels for Heine have also been taken up in the *Vienna Neue Freie Presse* by that clever dialectician Ludwig Speidel. He turns the tables on Büchner and Dahn. Büchner had incautiously referred to Schopenhauer, and Speidel takes occasion to remind him that Schopenhauer called him a "barber's apprentice," and his famous 'Kraft und Stoff' a "worthless book." Concerning Dahn (who has written about ninety books, and who, in his recent autobiography, with somewhat unexpected modesty, classes himself as "a second-rate savant and a third-rate poet"), Speidel remarks that he is "the poet of German chauvinism. He has treated the most German of all subjects, but any one who would assert that he has treated them in a German way knows not what German is."

—Speidel's opinion of Heine is also worth translating:

"Heinrich Heine is not a stranger, he is a German. Heine had a deeper insight into the German heart than any of those Teutons who are to-day impugning his German national feeling. In proof of this, read his remarks on German folk-song and on Goethe's lyrics, in which the pulse of the German people beats more vigorously than in any other of his treatises; examine his writings, pervaded by our characteristic national sentiments, and note how understandingly and sympathetically he

gossips about the German legends, how full his fancy is with the figures of our sagas. Of his songs, which affect us like newly revealed feelings, and impress us by their concise and apt expression of German sentiment, it is surely unnecessary to speak at this day, and it may be safely said that his 'Atta Troll' still remains the last great German poem. In the case of a poet like Heine it is self-evident that he enriched the German language, and created master-works in German prose whose thoroughness and brilliancy will defy time. By his rich comic vein, by his wit and ridicule, he exerted a liberating influence at the time when every spontaneous movement of the spirit was suppressed. That this could not be done without occasionally inflicting wounds, is a result inseparable from the nature of wit, which is often a demonic power that possesses him who possesses it."

—The *National Observer*, which, though now published in London, began its career as the *Scots Observer* in Edinburgh, has been in existence but five years and a half. It was in its fifth or sixth week, when, despite its first somewhat brilliant prospects, it was on the point of disappearing altogether, that Mr. Henley took it in hand, and at once gave it a distinct individuality. It has made many enemies, and has never been popular; probably under Mr. Henley it never could be popular in the wide sense of the term, for in all matters, political, literary, and artistic alike, its standard has been ultra-conservative, or perhaps it would be more accurate to say aristocratic. It has rendered direct services to literature by its publication of much of the best work of the younger generation of poets, novelists, and essayists. In its pages have appeared the 'London Voluntaries' and many of the choicest of Mr. Henley's own poems, as well as chapters, or separate episodes, from the books of Mr. Stevenson, Mr. Hardy, and Mr. Barrie. It was the first literary organ to recognize Mr. Rudyard Kipling, whose 'Barrack-Room Ballads' were first printed in its columns. It introduced to the public Mr. Marriott Watson, Mr. Gilbert Parker, and Mr. Murray Gilchrist, three masters of the short story. Nor would it be easy to count the London journalists it has helped to train. Mr. Henley now retires from the helm, and what may be the *National Observer's* future with a new editor, Mr. J. E. Vincent, time must show.

—Lecène, Oudin & Cie. (Paris) have added two more volumes to their excellent collection of "Classiques populaires." The first is devoted to Bossuet, and is the work of M. G. Lanson, who has made large use of the book he wrote on the great orator and historian three years ago. The present production is partly a summary, it is true, of the former, but it is also, in a sense, an appendix to it, the numerous illustrative extracts from Bossuet's works giving it a special value. It is fully as readable as the larger book, for M. Lanson is thoroughly imbued with his subject and clear in his statements. The woodcuts, as is generally the case in the volumes of this collection, are wretchedly poor. It would be an advantage to omit them. The second volume, written by M. J. de Crozals, is upon Guizot, whose personality is far from being as attractive as that of Louis XIV.'s favorite prelate. The rigidity of character, the somewhat repellent nature, in public at least, of Guizot, the uncompromising principles of the man, are set forth in not too captivating a manner. It is difficult to decide whether this is due to the subject or to inability on the part of M. de Crozals to seize and keep the attention of his reader as does M. Lanson. Guizot ended by being very unpopular; M. de Crozals despairs of reversing that verdict, and his tone is somewhat apologetic

throughout, which does not help him to convince and charm the modern reader, who is nevertheless free from the influences which turned the generation of 1848 against Guizot. He also has an exasperating way of printing his quotations from Guizot's work which gives to the larger portion of his book the aspect of a commentary. Harder still on the dead historian is the morose portrait of him, which is quite in keeping with the style of the book.

GENERAL POLK.

Leonidas Polk, Bishop and General. By William M. Polk, M.D., LL.D. Longmans, Green & Co. 2 vols., 12mo, pp. 349, 442.

WE have here a valuable contribution to the history of the civil war. It has been understood that for some years Dr. Polk has had in hand his father's biography, and he has spared no pains to make it an adequate record of the ecclesiastical as well as the military history of Bishop Polk. The spirit and tone of the book are excellent. The story is told with fullness enough to explain itself and to be its own apology, without controversy and without bitterness. It presents the man as his conduct and his own words explained his motives, and these are such as to command the respect even of those who were in antagonism to him. The material gathered seems to have divided itself very conveniently into two equal parts, so that the first volume is wholly devoted to the youth and the clerical labors of Bishop Polk, the second to the military career of the general.

That the Protestant Episcopal Bishop of Louisiana should at the outbreak of the great rebellion accept a commission as a major-general in the Confederate Army was always more or less a stumbling-block to religious people. His brethren of the episcopate and of the ministry at the South accepted the judgment of the venerable Bishop Meade of Virginia when he said that he could not sanction it, but, as all rules have exceptions, he could not condemn it. The case was exceptional in the fact that Bishop Polk was a graduate of West Point, though he had never actually served in the army after graduating. During his cadetship such religious impressions had been made upon him through the preaching of Bishop McIlvaine, then chaplain of the Military Academy, that he had resolved to enter the ministry, and he went from the Academy to the Theological Seminary. Ill health and family affairs had interfered with his plans, so that he had, in fact, almost no experience as a rector of a parish when he was, in 1838, made missionary bishop of the Southwest. In 1841 he became Bishop of Louisiana.

It is fair to say that habits of command were thus more natural to his mind than those of ministration, and his position as a dignitary, united with the influence of a leading member of the prominent family of the Polks of North Carolina and Tennessee, gave a kind of local leadership which, in connection with his military education, made the offer of a military command easily take the guise of a duty. Casuistry on such a subject is pretty sure to involve itself in practical difficulties. Theoretically, there is no apparent reason why a pious bishop as well as a pious farmer or mechanic may not slaughter men in war. By similar reasoning one may argue that it is as right for a woman to enlist against a public enemy as for her husband or her son. But many centuries of experience have shown that the curiously complicated structure of human society suffers a damaging shock when certain heredi-

tary conventions are violated. Among these are the rules that ministers of the Gospel shall be ministers of peace, and that amazons shall not be enlisted in the most righteous war. If there be exceptions, they only prove the rule, and a fighting parson may well continue as rare as a Jeanne Darc. There were examples on both sides of Mason and Dixon's line of the violation of both traditions; but the experience of the civil war has not weakened the authority of the general rule.

The sincerity and conscientiousness of Bishop Polk are sufficiently shown in the intimate history of his life and in his private correspondence; yet one who reads it will see that a curious struggle went on in his mind. When travelling in England as a comparatively young man, he was impressed with the advantages of a wholly free community. He recorded his conviction that it was greatly desirable that the South should be rid of slavery. Yet, in 1861, he was so militant in his support of secession based on the claim to a constitutional extension of slavery into the Territories, that he was popularly looked to as a leader who might be expected to exchange his robes for a gray uniform. He did so with some hesitation; and when the first excitement of the rebellion cooled a little, he twice tendered his resignation and sought to return to his episcopal duties, but President Davis evidently felt that this would be disadvantageous to the Confederate cause, and Gen. Polk yielded to Mr. Davis's wish.

The biography will give to Northern readers a higher opinion of Gen. Polk's quality as a soldier than the one which has been common among us. The official reports of Beauregard at Shiloh and of Bragg in the Tullahoma and Chickamauga campaign contained criticisms of Gen. Polk of a kind peculiarly likely to stick. He was represented as wilful if not insubordinate, taking liberties with military orders sent him, and obeying or not, as he pleased. Intimations were made that his love of personal comfort made him sleep too far from the bivouac of his troops on important occasions, and that he assumed, as an important personage, a personal freedom from the stricter rules of discipline. Out of this grew the idea, more or less prevalent, that his importance to the Confederate cause was rather as a social leader than as a military officer.

Without too distinctly recognizing the need of defending his father from these imputations, Dr. Polk has quite fully arrayed the evidence which shows that such opinions did an injustice to the general. His presence in the thick of battle and his bravery under fire are shown to be habitual. In the matter of his position and headquarters in the night after the first day's fighting at Chickamauga, which Bragg made the occasion of charges against him, the exoneration seems to be complete. He spent the night close to Alexander's bridge, where the most casual examination of the map fixes the appropriate position for the commander of the Confederate right wing, whether we consider the handling of his own troops or communication with army and corps headquarters during the night. Mr. Davis himself examined the grounds of this controversy, and settled it in his visit to the army by dismissing the charges and assigning Gen. Polk to the command of the Department of Alabama and Mississippi.

What at first blush seems to be a personal matter between Bragg and Polk turns out to be of greater consequence. It involves the question of Bragg's capacity for so large an independent command as was given him in

1862, and the whole conduct of the campaigns of that and the next year. The biography's greatest historical value is found in the light it throws on the operations of the Confederate campaigns in the West, down to the battle of Chickamauga. Bragg is represented to have been a man of much talent in administrative work and in organization and discipline; but one who "let down" when burdened with the supreme responsibility of a great campaign. His power of decision then seemed to leave him, and he became hesitant and vacillating. Thus, at Perryville, after a bold movement from Chattanooga into Kentucky had brought him within striking distance of Buell's army, his nerve is represented as failing him, and at the moment when decisive concentration and a strong initiative were all-important, he could decide nothing, let illusions outweigh positive information as to the movement and position of the national army, and lost at once by his own weakness all the advantage he had gained from his earlier strategy. A similar weakening is shown to have occurred at Tullahoma and at Chickamauga. In short, unless the evidence thus presented can be overridden, we must conclude that Bragg was a type of the class of second or third-rate men, so common in military history, whose intellect and will break down under the strain of responsible command, and who are consequently unfit for it. The splendid fighting of the troops in the engagements mentioned, and at Stone's River as well, is attributed to the leadership of the corps and division commanders, while the general-in-chief would seem to have been practically a cipher in the crises when a real general counts for most. This view is presented so calmly but so cogently that no one can question its capital importance in the discussion of these critical campaigns of the West.

Gen. Polk was not destined to see the end of the war. His influence was great in procuring the appointment of Gen. Johnston to supersede Bragg, but in the midst of the Atlanta campaign he was instantly killed by a cannonball while he was assisting Gen. Johnston in an examination of Sherman's position from the top of Pine Mountain. The author was an officer of artillery in his father's command at the beginning of the war, and a member of his staff later. His intimate personal knowledge of all that he relates is therefore complete, and his unusual fitness for his task is shown by the admirable temper and taste of the whole work. Writers on the National side will differ from him in matters of fact when testimony is conflicting, and the perennial question of relative numbers will be found to be treated with a Confederate bias often discussed by us; but everybody who is in earnest in studying the history of that time will appreciate the work of an honest and able interior view of the Confederacy and of many of the first among the able men who directed its destinies. There are pictures, too, of Southern home life in the ante-bellum days which are full of interest and instruction, and thus the book will, from many points of view, be found to justify the judgment first expressed, that it is a very valuable contribution to American history. The folding maps are reproductions in colors of those in the Government Atlas accompanying the official records of the war, and as they are by Bien & Co., the original engravers, they mark an important step in the illustration of historical memoirs.

KIDD'S SOCIAL EVOLUTION.

Social Evolution. By Benjamin Kidd. Macmillan & Co. 1894.

WE have here a striking and original work, evidently the product of long study and careful thought, by a hitherto unknown author. Mr. Kidd bases his effort on the idea that while science has been actively engaged in studying the evolution of every form of life from the lowest to the highest, with fairly satisfactory results, she stands dumb in the presence of humanity. There is to-day no science of human society, properly so called, and no indication from those who speak in the name of science even as to the direction in which the path of future progress is to lie. The older political economy has been weighed in the balance and found wanting; the new economics gives only vague and shadowy intimations. Spencer, the greatest student of the subject, has thrown so little practical light on the problems of sociology that his conclusions are held up, by two opposing parties, in support of diametrically opposite views. Huxley and George have portrayed the imperfections of society as it exists, but have not even suggested a law of progress by which we may judge of the probable future. The former would willingly see some kindly comet sweep the race from the earth, unless there is to be an improvement; but his criticism on social efforts is so completely destructive that no inference respecting future conduct can be drawn from its conclusions. It is to this neglected subject of the law of progress in human society, and its probable form during the twentieth century, that Mr. Kidd devotes his work.

His treatment is everywhere of the broadest kind, his style a model of dignity and philosophic calmness, and his periods so stately that it is a pleasure to follow him. He rarely offends the reader by descending to the consideration of specific facts, or analyzing the proximate causes of the phenomena he discusses, but rather contents himself with basing his arguments on those general features of the situation which it is the province of the scientific investigator to bring out. The reader is carried through the air without any disagreeable approach to the asperities of the landscape, and shown a very pleasant succession of instructive views, extending from the beginning of the race well through the twentieth century. The author avows no creed, follows in the footsteps of no party, and writes and criticises all views with such impartiality that it may be hardly fair to class him with any school. But the general trend of his thought, at least in all but the earlier chapters, is unmistakably that of the so-called Christian socialist.

It is doubtless through a failure on our part to catch precisely the logical connection of his argument that we are unable to mould the earlier and later chapters into a congruous whole. In the former, the conditions of human progress are discussed in a way that looks so discouraging, the absence of any rational sanction for the conditions of progress is argued with such force, and the antagonism between the interests of the individual and those of the social organism are dwelt upon with such an apparent implication of the impossibility of improvement, that the reader might almost think himself listening to a demonstration of pessimism as regards the future. But when the discussion of modern socialism opens, and the forecast of the future begins, a brighter light shines upon the page. The want of a rational sanction for human progress is to be sup-

plied by the ultra-rational sanction of religious belief, which is to lead the individual to subordinate his personal good to that of the social organism. The doctrine of non-interference of the State in social matters is to be abandoned, and the lower and weaker classes are to be equipped at the general expense against the higher and wealthier classes. Indeed, we are already far past the doctrine that the end of public endeavor is to secure political equality for all. During the twentieth century we shall see among the Western peoples a process of social development tending to bring all the people into the rivalry of life on conditions of social equality. Even now there is rising in England a school of political economists who are beginning to question whether poverty itself may not be abolished, and whether it is necessarily any more a permanent institution than was slavery.

The author's turn of thought is shown by his failure to perceive the logical difficulties in the interpretation of his scheme—a failure which seems as complete as that of socialists generally to appreciate the practical difficulties in the way of putting their plans into operation. He correctly points out that the great work of the progressive party during the nineteenth century has been to secure the recognition of the principle that all men are equal before the law. When he maintains that this party must now go further in the same direction, he brings to mind the Irishman who would have one man not only as good as another, but "a great deal better." What is poverty? And when we have defined it, what is to be done with the man who would rather suffer it as we define it than work hard for a living? If all men are equal before the law, he is to have his own way. If we are going to force him to earn a living, this is not a step forward beyond equality, nor is it in the direction of giving him equal social opportunities, but it is rather a step backward towards feudalism. We must decide for him how many of the good things of this life are needful to keep him out of poverty, and make him work until he earns them, much as the baron did with his serfs. If we are not to use force, but must still keep him out of poverty, every such man must be fed and clothed at the public expense. If this is what Mr. Kidd means by social equality, he should say so more explicitly. If the industrious part of the community is to support the idle, not merely by giving them the necessities of existence, but by lifting them above poverty, the policy could hardly be called equality. In fact, our author is at one with all classes of socialists in ignoring the fact that great numbers of people, both of our own and of other races, do not want to be elevated above the condition of poverty, or, at least, do not want it earnestly enough to work continuously and industriously for it; and that any measures looking towards supporting them in any condition above that which they are willing to attain by their own exertions, will only produce demoralization.

When he divides mankind into the exploiting and the exploited classes, and gives an endorsement, even very qualified, to Karl Marx's view that the interests of the laborer and the capitalist under the present system are necessarily so antagonistic that those of the former must suffer, he betrays an intellectual bias which materially weakens our confidence in the soundness of his conclusions. He does, indeed, admit the great improvement which has taken place in the condition of the laboring classes during the pre-

sent century; and if he believes that this improvement is the outcome of the great increase of capital which has taken place, and of the efforts of the capitalists to make money, he should frankly have said so and reconciled the conclusion with his theories of progress. If he does not believe it, he should have set forth what he considers the cause of the improvement. He does neither.

We must conclude that with all the praise that may be accorded to the work from a literary or philosophical standpoint, it is found wanting when regarded as an actual investigation of social evolution by scientific methods. That sublimated essence of facts on which sound philosophy must be based, can be distilled only from the concrete facts themselves; and while the writer correctly points out that this has not yet been done in a satisfactory way, he does not attempt to do it himself. As an illustration of what the scientific method is, and how far Mr. Kidd comes from applying it, let us take the case of the suffering poor in such a metropolis as London. Science would begin by looking up some poor Hodge, and questioning him as to his history and antecedents. It would find that Hodge had not been bred to habits of regular industry, unless in a very restricted field, and had not learned to do anything which millions of others could not do better than he could; that in fact he had grown up without any definite object in life. Now in middle age he is unable to do anything that anybody else wants done. Taking Hodge as a typical case, the conclusion reached would be that the principal cause of poverty is the absence in youth of that training necessary to enable a man to earn a living after he shall grow up. The question, Why so much poverty? would then resolve itself into, Why such an absence of training?

The consideration of this question would open up a further field of study. It would probably be found that at the present time a larger proportion of the youth of the land are growing up without any definite object in life than was the case in former generations. A hundred years ago every careful parent considered it his duty to train his boys to a trade, or to secure some opening for them in life. If they lived on a farm, they were to become farmers; if in the neighborhood of a castle, they might become servants or hunters; if in a town, tradesmen or mechanics. Why should this not be equally the case in the present generation? One answer is that the incentive is less now than it was then. Owing to the increase of wealth, it was never so easy for one who knew nothing and could do nothing to pick up the shreds of a living as it is now. A hundred years ago starvation stared such a man in the face; now nothing worse than *la misère*, and scarce even that in England or America. When the wages of fifteen minutes' work of the average laborer will buy a loaf of good bread, and an hour's labor a pound of meat, no one need suffer for food—a result the very knowledge of which removes a strong motive to the industrial education of the children of the poor.

With all its shortcomings, we consider Mr. Kidd's book well worthy the careful study of thinking men. The author is a socialist of the most moderate and sensible kind, and he outlines correctly the direction in which the world is trying to move; we might say the direction in which it is being impelled by the increasing pressure of a great mass of ill-disciplined and therefore generally unsound thought. His keen analysis, breadth of view, and fairness of statement will commend his

views to the reader even when they seem to lack a basis in the facts of life.

BARBER'S POTTERY AND PORCELAIN OF THE UNITED STATES.

The Pottery and Porcelain of the United States: An historical review of American ceramic art from the earliest times to the present day. By Edwin Atlee Barber, A. M. Ph. D., etc., etc. With 223 illustrations. G. P. Putnam's Sons. Small quarto, pp. xvii, 446.

THIS is an industrious and painstaking book on a somewhat thankless subject. Mr. Barber has brought together more facts in relation to the history of pottery in this country than will be found, we believe, in any other one book; he has stated these facts clearly and compactly and arrayed them in order, and he has put the future student of such matters under an obligation by the thorough way in which he has performed his task. If, after all his labor, the result of his studies must be pronounced not only dry, but depressing, that, certainly, is not his fault: pottery as a manufacture can be interesting only to potters, and pottery as an art has, as yet, produced in this country hardly any fruit worth mentioning. The pieces contained in our museums and private collections in which some glimmer of artistic feeling may be indulgently discerned, are either copies, always rude, made by our earliest potters, of models brought from the old country, or direct borrowings—never wholly successful because always balked by native ineptitude—from the better equipped manufactories of Europe.

The opening chapters of Mr. Barber's book relate to processes of manufacture, and to the materials employed, but we are not told as much as we might expect of the native sources of these materials. It is believed that we have in this country every kind of clay needed in the making of pottery, including large deposits of true kaolin, and these materials are said to be equal to the best found in other countries. It is a curious fact, recalled by Mr. Barber, that in 1766, Wedgwood, the famous English potter, "procured samples of the Carolina clays from the country of the Cherokees, some three hundred miles from Charleston, which, proving satisfactory after trial, were, for several years after, used by him in larger quantities. Subsequently, he imported clays from Florida, which he seems to have preferred to the former."

Mr. Barber's chapter on Aboriginal Pottery is well enough, though it has really no essential connection with the subject, and has nothing to tell us that was not already known. The aborigines of this continent were savages, and they gave to the things they made—their pottery, their textiles, their carving in stone or wood—no better form or ornamentation than we find in the work of savages everywhere. What interests us in these things—the only interest they can have for us—is their curious relationship to what is found in other countries, the work of peoples alien to our aborigines in race, so far as we know, and certainly separated from them by vast reaches of land and water, and perhaps of time.

Mr. Barber's subject properly begins with his chapter on Early Brick and Tile-making. It was at one time believed that all the bricks used in this country before the middle of the last century were brought from Holland or England. No doubt, this is true of many cases—instances are known to everybody who is interested in the matter; but Mr. Barber

shows that "brick-making had become an established industry in America a few years after the arrival of the first white settlers." The same is true of roofing-tiles: the earliest that were used are believed to have been brought from Holland; but, as in the case of bricks, while this was well enough for people who lived on the seaboard, "the cost of importing these supplies and transporting them to the rural districts far removed from tide-water would have been prohibitory." Kilns for their manufacture were therefore set up at an early date; but even with regard to certain tiles that were dug up from the ruins of houses built on the Burlington Islands in the Delaware River in 1668, Prof. Edward S. Morse, whose competence in such matters is well known, is of opinion that, since there is no evidence to show that they were imported, they may have been made in this country. By the middle of the eighteenth century, the manufacture of roofing tiles was well established in Pennsylvania—Mr. Barber tells us nothing of their making in any other part of the country; and though after a time they ceased to be used, yet of late they are coming into favor again, and are now made in many places on this side the water.

The chapters that follow on Early Potting in America are as entertaining as the subject allows, and Mr. Barber's industry in the collecting of facts does him great credit. Little that he reports has any relation to the artistic side of the general subject; such shadowy suggestion of art feeling as these early pieces show is too plainly reminiscent of Old-World models. Often, no doubt, the designs, if we may call them such, were directly copied from pieces as rude as themselves, brought over by immigrants, since the potters here would find it to their interest to supply their customers with wares associated with life in their old homes. Utility, and not beauty, was then the quest of these early workmen, and such ornamentation as they added to their wares was of little other value than as a relief to the bareness of the surface.

The greater part of Mr. Barber's book is taken up with the history of the manufacture of pottery in this country. Strictly speaking, there has not been, on the artistic side, much that can rightly be called development in pottery as an art among us. Even Mr. Barber, who is full of honest patriotic zeal in his advocacy of our home manufacture, and who does not stick, like the good Pennsylvanian that he is, at advocacy of the most drastic measures to advance its interests—as he understands them—is obliged to admit that, "thus far, our potters have been in a great measure imitators rather than inventors, and the result is that we have largely reproduced, though in a most creditable manner, patterns and designs, bodies, glazes, and decorations of foreign factories" (p. 428). We will grant that this copying of designs has been necessary up to the present time—it has been common in all countries and in all ages; but in almost every case there was some artistic instinct or feeling in the copyist that gave to the copy if not a charm, at least an impress of its own, and, the impulse from abroad once communicated, the new art went on, developing on lines of its own. But, with us, the love of copying seems persistent, and we are so far from being ashamed of it that we think it clever. We take pride, if Mr. Barber may be spokesman for us, in the fact that we have so successfully imitated a pretty and peculiar Irish manufacture as to drive the original from our market. One of our countrywomen, who no doubt could have done something original if

she had given her mind to it, wasted her time and energy in a successful attempt to discover "the secret" of the Limoges faience exhibited in 1876 at Philadelphia, and now, happily, as dead as the dodo. Another of us "directed his efforts towards solving the secret of the famous *sang de bœuf*, and, after four years of sacrifice and patient investigation, his labors were in a measure successful." And still another thinks it has been worth his while "to discover the method of making the *reflet métallique* of the old Persian tiles." What has been gained for art by all this copying? The expense of the manufacture puts the pieces produced beyond the reach of the public, and artists and connoisseurs care nothing for them. A copy is always a copy, and we are not surprised to read that, after all the labor put forth in making facsimiles of the *sang de bœuf* glaze, "the demand for works of this character being limited, some of the finest examples still rest on the dusty shelves in the Chelsea workshop."

Outside of the Rookwood pottery, of which the clays and glazes are alone to be admired—a love of the bizarre injuriously affecting the greater part of the forms, and the glazes themselves having, too often, a sweetness and slickness found cloying in the long run—we have seen nothing to warrant Mr. Barber's enthusiastic laudation of our national achievement in the potter's art. The pictures given in this book, illustrating the work of our factories or of particular persons, though highly praised by the author, are disheartening enough; but they fairly represent the jejune, tasteless, inartistic designs that crowd our magazines and meet the eye in our houses on every side. Mr. Barber's industry and thoroughness as a compiler are praiseworthy, but his qualifications as an *arbitrator elegantiarum* are not so clear: the example of Mr. W. W. Gallimore's skill as a modeller in low relief given as a frontispiece to the book furnishes ground for serious misgivings on the subject, which are not dispelled by the approval bestowed on such a monstrosity as Mr. Miller's design for a frieze obtained by the happy thought of cutting octagonal spittoons in half (p. 343). No one who had the artistic development of our pottery at heart would so much as mention such a performance, but the book abounds in proof of a want of perception. It is vain to hope that pottery will become an art in our country so long as those who direct its manufacture are incapacitated as teachers or guides, either by a want of natural instinct or because such instinct as they may have has not been developed by education. No doubt, too, the taste of our people at large is at fault: we have no inherited standard, and we are much too easily pleased. It is not encouraging to know that, to any one who has the artistic sense, a ten-cent Japanese bowl, even in these supposed degenerate Japanese days, is capable of giving more pleasure than all that Trenton, Cincinnati, and Chelsea put together have produced.

We believe there is a happy future for the art of pottery in our country, but its coming will surely be hindered rather than hastened by the protectionist devices of Mr. Barber and those who think with him; by the rigorous shutting-out of foreign examples from our exhibitions which he proposes (p. 427), or by the attempt at cutting off the importation of foreign wares by prohibitory duties. It ought to be seen by this time that wild horses cannot drag cultivated Americans to buy inferior articles solely because they are made at home.

"The fiend that man carries
Is love of the Best."

And long may he harry our American potters until we cease to do evil, learn to do well.

Studies of the Stage. By Brander Matthews. Harper & Brothers. 1894.

In these half-a-dozen essays Mr. Brander Matthews converses pleasantly, if not always originally, upon a variety of theatrical topics, displaying in every case that intimate acquaintance with the subject which comes of long personal experience and careful research. There are, indeed, very few persons who are more competent than he to speak of the French and English stages, both past and present, so long as he confines himself to fact and anecdote. During the last twenty years or more he has seen every play worth seeing and known every actor worth knowing, being as much at home on one side of the curtain as the other, and, moreover, he has read diligently, widely, and intelligently, acquiring indisputable authority upon all theatrical matters, historical, technical, and personal. He is able to keep his reader constantly entertained by his copious supply of incidents, comparisons, and quotations, and his skill in the introduction and management of old material.

Of the papers under present consideration not one is dull, although a good deal of the information contained in them is rather elementary, and some of the opinions expressed are more dogmatic than convincing. As a narrator, Mr. Matthews is interesting and trustworthy, but his conclusions are apt to be hasty and to rest upon a particular instance rather than upon a general rule. What he says about the difficulty of dramatizing a novel is all true enough, and he might have gone a good deal further without much fear of contradiction; but his closing assertions, that "the drama is really the noblest form of literature because it is the most direct," and that "it calls forth the highest of literary faculties in the highest degree," are somewhat violent. Accumulated superlatives of this sort are always dangerous. In discussing the dramatic conditions in England one hundred years ago, he says "that the sudden extension of journalism undoubtedly tended to decrease the public interest in the drama." This is an opinion which it would be difficult to support by proof. To the ordinary observer the newspaper appears to be a most potent supporter and advertiser of the theatre, and it would be scarcely too much to say that the two institutions have grown and flourished together. The effect of the newspaper upon the quality of contemporary drama is another question altogether. Again, Mr. Matthews says, "It is much easier to write a novel than it is to make a play," but that, clearly, depends upon the kind of novel and play that is meant. As a matter of fact the two things are essentially different, as Mr. Matthews himself points out, and cannot justly be compared.

Another curious remark for a critical writer to make occurs in the excellent paper on Francisque Sarcey. "Seen by the light of the lamps, a play has quite another complexion from that it bears in the library. Passages pale and dull, it may be, when read coldly by the eye, are lighted by the inner fire of passion when presented in the theatre." The first half of this paragraph is undoubtedly true, but the second half takes no account whatever of the power of the imagination of an intelligent reader. Of course, a great actor is a potent commentator and illustrator, and often reveals unsuspected beauties to the student, to say nothing of the ignoramus, but it is the tritest of

truths that some of the choicest masterpieces of the poetical drama wholly defy the genius of the actor and the cunning of the stage manager. In another place Mr. Matthews says that "the dramatic critic does not see a new play—he sees only a performance," which can be true only where the critic is wholly incompetent, or, in other words, no critic at all. Other examples of such loose generalization might be quoted, but it would not be generous or fair to insist too strongly upon the occasional flaws in an attractive little volume which is full of entertainment, and offers a great variety of information in compact and agreeable form.

Cœurs Russes. Par le Vte. E. Melchior de Vogüé. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.

IN this volume M. de Vogüé has collected together five short sketches of Russian life, the most recent of which, he states, was published ten years ago. In an interesting introduction which describes Russian weather and habits, he represents four of the stories as having been narrated to him by a landed proprietor who was personally acquainted with the facts. However that may be, the stories are full of life and of the spirit of the land. The longest of them, "Varvara Afanasievna," is nothing more nor less than the history of the Medical Courses for Women in St. Petersburg cast in abbreviated narrative form, and its heartrending details might be verified in many cases of real life, without a doubt. "Le Fife Petrouchka" is the stirring tale of a peasant hero who revived the courage of his starving comrades in a fortress of the Caucasus besieged by the Turks, and saved the place until reinforcements arrived by playing "God Save the Czar" on his fife. It is as characteristic as are the prefatory remarks about the Russian peasant in general and Petrouchka in particular. "L'Oncle Fédia" reminds one of a tale of L. N. Tolstoi's, where the innocent allows himself to be sent to Siberia to save the guilty, the truth being discovered too late to rescue the peasant hero from his undeserved punishment. The story is told with beautiful truth and simplicity. "Le Temps du Servage" presents a repulsive picture of pre-emancipation manners on some badly managed estates. But, as the author makes his Russian friend remark:

"The principle was detestable. The application of it was more gentle than that of the feudal code in many parts of Europe. The great mistake which we made (we, the civilized of yesterday) was to exhibit such manners to the Occident when the latter had become unused to them, when it had become prudish and prompt to feel scandalized. Its conscience reproached it with its own old sins; it consoled itself by belaboring our shoulders. But, having said thus much in exculpation, it must be confessed that there were some sad exceptions."

It is one of these sad exceptions which forms the subject of the sketch. "Le Manteau de Joseph Olenin" does not deal with peasant life, but it is equally characteristic of Russian temper. Joseph Olenin belongs to the learned class of society, to the upper classes to which the author's remark in this story especially applies: "You are Slav, consequently more or less of a spiritualist, a believer in metempsychosis and a lot of other similar things." Joseph Olenin is obliged to leave Petersburg, while engaged in scientific investigations concerning the sojourn of the Hebrews in Egypt, to visit his estate in Little Russia on business. On the way he loses his travelling-coat lined with fox-skin. He despatches his servant to the posting-station near the scene of the loss, and the postmaster sends him a cloak which

has been found and brought in. On opening the parcel, Olenin finds a lady's cloak of blue velvet lined with valuable sables and cut in Polish fashion. He endues this cloak with a sort of soul, helps his delusion by stuffing it into shape with straw, and takes to wearing it because he fancies that the delicate spirit of its true owner penetrates him when he is in contact with it, as it affects the atmosphere of his room when it lies on his sofa. He becomes so absorbed in his fancies over this cloak that he neglects his business and his studies for vaporous musings. At last he meets the owner of the cloak at the posting-station. He is wearing her cloak, she is wearing his. She is a beautiful and witty Pole, married to an old Count on a distant estate. His reluctance to part with the cloak, at her demand for her property, leads her to invite him to come and call on the cloak at her house. It ends in Olenin passing most of his time there, faithfully devoted to worship of the cloak, to such a degree that he makes the Countess jealous, and she takes to wearing it all day in the house, in order that he may turn his attention to her. In vain; the romance never descends any nearer to the earthly and commonplace, and, naturally, the end of it is indefinite and rather feeble, through the impossibility of inventing a suitable catastrophe. Such a romance is quite possible and in the spirit of certain mystical Russians.

One of the most delightful parts of the volume is the introduction, where the author shows his delicate appreciation of Russian landscape, customs, and habits in phrases of the utmost precision, which deserve to be quoted. Nothing can be happier than this description of a winter landscape: "The morning was superb: ten degrees below zero, a brilliant sun in the blue sky, not a breath of air; vast horizons of plains, all of a crude white, with reflections of rose color and gleams of gold; a world as dead and as brilliant as a bit of old China porcelain." Here is a companion picture of in-door life: "But, for the purpose of combating the boredom of their winter, Providence has endowed the sons of Rurik with two faithful weapons, cards and tea; between the samovar and the card-table the Russian hours flow past as inoffensive and as useless as a depreciated coinage, so abundant that no one has ever dreamed of saving it." The following ranks high among foreign efforts to explain the mental workings of Russian brains. Turgeneff might have penned it:

"His intelligence took pleasure in this vapor of thought, as his body did in the vapor of the Russian bath, in that lukewarm atmosphere which is neither air nor water, but a soft mist. In order to preserve more liberty and amplitude for these abstract studies [the study of Kant], my friend sagely separated them from the petty realities of existence. Thus, Michail Dmitritch labored more particularly over the reform of the provincial administration, the amelioration of the lot of the peasants, the extinction of drunkenness and the assimilation of the Israelites; this did not prevent his living on excellent terms with the old abuses, gladly harboring the police officials of the district, who were notorious extortioners but jolly companions, and letting the communal dram-shop at a very high rental to a Jew whom he maltreated. . . . An excellent neighbor and a good master, nevertheless, obliging, sensible, vibrating with sympathy for the interests and greatness of his country, always ready to talk eloquently about it; speech having been conferred on the Russian to serve as an outlet for his mighty dreams, which would cause his head and his country to burst if, unhappily, he were born dumb."

There are plenty more phrases and descriptions which are equally felicitous and true. Without being a great book, "Cœurs Russes"

is charming, and deserves to be read with serious attention for the side-lights which it throws on Russian hearts and characters.

Canada's Intellectual Strength and Weakness. By J. G. Bourinot, D.C.L. Montreal: Foster Brown & Co.

EVERY country is open to the imputation of unfamiliarity with the intellectual quality of other countries, and about the Canadian intellect which expresses itself in literary form the rest of the world may be said to revel in dense ignorance. A book devoted to the consideration of Canadian intellect, written by a Canadian with a national reputation in both law and letters, ought therefore to be of interest to all who are not complacently sure that in this case ignorance is bliss.

Dr. Bourinot's book is a reprint, with revision and addition, of an address delivered before the Royal Society of Canada in 1893. It includes a slightly critical résumé of the literary product of Canada from Lescarbot to the present time (nearly three centuries), a sketch of the foundation and subsequent work of the Royal Society, and some general reflections on obstacles which, more particularly in Canada than elsewhere, beset the intellect endeavoring to soar beyond the immediate and the practical. With allowance for the condensation necessary in order to cover so much ground in so little space, the book is agreeably written, and the subject is handled in a spirit neither of boastfulness nor of undue humility. It has indeed occasionally the air of a letter to be read to the family only—as, for instance, when the author reproves a gentleman, whom he calls "Principal Grant," for doubting whether the Transactions of the Royal Society should properly be called literature. He fires at this unlucky gentleman one of Matthew Arnold's numerous definitions of literature, "everything written in letters and printed in a book," while we feel that "Principal Grant" had no such definition in mind, but one which, though narrower in scope and vaguer in expression, is more widely accepted. He probably meant to imply that printed matter is literature only when its form excites admiration and pleasure, no matter what its subject may be. Such a definition rules out the transactions of most societies, and, on Dr. Bourinot's own showing, the greater part of the matter written and printed in Canada.

Excepting the work of the French clergy and gentlemen adventurers and of some scholarly Englishmen temporarily resident in the colony, he has little to offer that shall redeem from insignificance Canadian contributions to the literature of the English and French tongues, and of this fact he is perfectly cognizant. In science, the world has recognized Sir William Dawson and Dr. Sterry Hunt; in history, Garneau, Ferland, and, more recently, Kingsford; while in fiction the only sounding name is that of Judge Haliburton, author of 'The Clockmaker; or Sayings and Doings of Sam Slick,' and one of the pioneers of character sketch and dialect. The muse of poetry has been rather more successfully cultivated than her sisters. Octave Crémazie wrote songs that live on the lips of his countrymen, and Louis Fréchette's 'Fleurs Boréales' has been crowned by the French Academy. In English verse Mr. Charles Roberts and Mr. Archibald Lampman compare favorably with their contemporaries on both sides of the Atlantic.

Among the obstacles to literary development in the bilingual Dominion Dr. Bourinot omits

to mention two which seem to us the most serious. For the English there is the proximity of a country whose political institutions naturally attract ardent and imaginative youth, and whose large cities and seats of learning afford a more congenial atmosphere for those who care for ideas and need the stimulus of the world's current. The list of men and women born and perhaps bred in Canada who to-day are conspicuous in the literary life of the United States, is long and far from discreditable. For the French there is the dead weight of ecclesiastical pressure, none the less oppressive because it assumes the rôle of a benevolent control of moral and spiritual welfare. The Church has, in a way and from the beginning, preserved among a very limited number of the French in Canada a love of letters and an appreciation of form and style, but it has been fatal to the progress of ideas; it has clipped the wings of thought and imagination, and not infrequently interfered with the truthful narration and just interpretation of facts.

In the bibliographical appendix to Dr. Bourinot's essay there is a short note on every Canadian writer of any importance except himself. Such modesty, in these notoriety-seeking days, is rare, and leaves to us the pleasure of describing his 'Cape Breton and its Memorials of the French Régime' as one of the most interesting and valuable contributions to the history of our continent.

Oxford and her Colleges: A View from the Radcliffe Library. By Goldwin Smith, D.C.L. Macmillan & Co. 1894.

MR. GOLDWIN SMITH'S miscellaneous writings are perhaps more interesting for the light they cast upon Mr. Smith than for the light they cast upon anything else. To say this is not to belittle them. The future historian of English thought will have a good deal to say about the doctrinaire Radicalism of fifty years ago—"doctrinaire" not necessarily in a bad sense, for it is an advantage as well as a disadvantage for men to be governed by a body of consistent principles; and one might wish that some of the political leaders of to-day realized with equal clearness the principles which guide their conduct. The future historian will also want to know how the men of that movement came to think in after years, when the causes had triumphed for which they had battled, and the world had moved on to a later stage in its history, a stage for which they were themselves in part responsible.

In Mr. Smith's literary career they will find the example of which they are in search. Academic Liberalism was a well-marked variety of the older Radicalism; and among academic Liberals, Mr. Smith, Secretary of the Royal Commission for the reform of the University of Oxford in 1854, was one of the most brilliant figures. A "Public School" man, among the most accomplished classical scholars of his generation, he combined very effectively the old learning with the new ideals; and it was natural that in 1858 he should become Regius Professor of Modern History, and the official prophet of the new era. One who heard him then is accustomed to say that when Mr. Smith lectured in the Sheldonian after his visits to this country—the land of freedom—his face shone like Moses coming down from the mount.

Since those days Mr. Smith has seen many men and cities; his prognostications of the future have ceased to be cheerful; his eyes have been opened to the good qualities of "the rectory and the hall," and the *Times* and Mr.

Gathorne-Hardy have had occasion to rejoice. In his latter-day writings, dread of modern democracy, fear of socialism, idealization of English country life under the paternal sway of the squire, scorn of agnosticism, mingle in odd incongruity oftentimes with the fine old Radical hatred of kings and aristocracies and established churches which clings to him from an earlier period. The result is, like some sauces, "piquant," if not nourishing.

Mr. Smith has had the kindness lately to write a little book for the American visitor to Oxford. It is a brief historical sketch of the various colleges, bringing out the more significant facts in their story, and doing it on the whole sympathetically. Oxford is one of the old institutions to which Mr. Smith has become more tender of late years. But even this tiny little book is not free from the disfiguring traces of unhistorical prejudice. He describes the condition of Oxford in the eighteenth century in the darkest colors, as was easy enough. But that he should go on to say, "It is said to think how different the history of England might have been had Oxford and Cambridge done their duty, like Harvard and Yale during the last century" (p. 79), can be explained only by the force of habit. He has been so fond of using, and properly using, American instances "for example of life and instruction of manners" in England that he falls into the trick unconsciously. Of course, if it is true that Harvard and Yale were last century bright and shining stars in the intellectual firmament while Oxford and Cambridge were obscure, let it be said. But is it true? Mr. Lowell's oration on the occasion of the Harvard Commemoration is a sufficient answer:

"During the eighteenth and first quarter of the nineteenth centuries, I fancy the condition of things here to have been very much what it was in the smaller English colleges of the period. . . . Young men who were willing mainly to teach themselves might get something to their advantage; while the rest were put here by their parents as into a comfortable quarantine, where they could wait till the gates of life were open to them, safe from any contagion of learning."

It would be hard to convince Mr. Smith that the Oxford of last century was less unmixedly evil than he supposes, for when he comes across a witness who says a word in its favor, he dismisses him as prejudiced. Thus, he says "Johnson's residence at Pembroke [College] was short, and his narrative shows that it was unprofitable"—rather a sweeping statement—"though his high-church principles afterwards made him a loyal son and eulogist of the University" (p. 78). May we not think that it was something besides his church principles—his knowledge both of himself and of human nature—which led Johnson to dwell on the good side rather than the evil of his college experiences?

For the seventeenth century we are sure, of course, to get from Mr. Smith the traditional Whig view. And yet we cannot repress a certain sense of surprise when we are told that the Royalist proscription after the Restoration was "more cruel and certainly more lawless" (p. 68) than that of the Puritans had been. Considering that it was the Puritans who set the example of evicting fellows and heads of colleges for their opinions, and that a good many of the later changes were but the restoration of evicted Royalists, that seems a hard saying even to those who admire the Puritans.

Mr. Smith writes pleasantly and easily—too easily for correctness. "Fifty years ago the wives of heads of houses, who generally married late in life, if they married at all, constituted, with one or two officers of the Universi-

ty, the whole female society of Oxford" (p. 89), will suggest that Oxford anticipated the university of "The Princess" in having "dowagers for deans"—which is not Mr. Smith's meaning. The "college founded by Keble" (p. 83) will lead the trusting reader astray historically; and "its professors form the general and superior staff of teachers" (p. 5) will be unintelligible. And perhaps it may be well to warn the reader that though Mr. Smith is a tolerably safe guide to the old colleges, he hardly knows the intellectual Oxford of to-day; and, indeed, does not attempt to describe it. There is one passage that is significant of much. Mr. Smith, after speaking of "Mansfield College for Congregationalists," tells us that by the side of it "rises Manchester College for Independents"! One cannot help thinking that here slips out that sheer ignorance of the life of the Nonconformist middle and lower classes of England which so often marks the doctrinaire reformer *de haut en bas*, and which sometimes strikes one as even more irritating than Conservative opposition.

The Ore Deposits of the United States. By James F. Kemp, Professor of Geology in the School of Mines, Columbia College. New York: Scientific Publishing Co. 1893.

THIS is the second important treatise upon American ore deposits that has ever been published, the first having been Whitney's 'Metallic Wealth of the United States,' which appeared in 1854. The most widely known general treatise, and the one which, even to the present day, is quoted in courts of law for definitions, is that of Von Cotta, published in German in 1859 and translated into English in 1870. Of the important treatises since that time two have been written by Germans, Grimm (1869) and Von Groddeck (1879), and one by an English mining engineer, Phillips (1884). From the meagreness of this list it would appear that this branch of geological research, in spite of its practical importance, had been relatively neglected. This was true up to within the last ten or fifteen years, when geologists possessing the necessary preliminary training in kindred sciences have generally become more abundant, and State and Government surveys have given more attention to the economic applications of geology, reluctantly overcoming the old prejudice which considered that when research led to practical results of absolute pecuniary value, it ceased to be pure science. In no other branch of geology, moreover, is so much hard and even dangerous physical labor required to arrive at conclusions of general theoretical value, nor are the conclusions so quickly subjected to the rigid test of practical experience.

When Whitney made the personal examinations upon which his work, in many respects the most able of all those above mentioned, was largely founded, mining in this country was still in its infancy, and the great mineral wealth of our Western mountains was practically unknown. His theoretical conclusions were therefore to a considerable extent drawn from European examples. Of the four other authors mentioned, three had never visited America, and none of them could adequately realize the advances that had been made by our economic geologists towards a rational theory of ore deposition, as distinguished from those based on the traditions and experience of a few European mining districts of half a century back.

The present writer, though too young a man to have personally examined a very large por-

tion of the mining field of this country, has been obliged, in his position as instructor in economic geology at Cornell and Columbia, to keep himself thoroughly familiar with the literature of ore deposits, and is thus enabled to give a most complete statement of modern views on the subject as derived from American examples. From a literary point of view his style has suffered from the abundance and necessary condensation of material, and his work bears evidence, at times, of undue haste and want of mature consideration, possibly due to pressure for copy by his publishers. His presentation, in the introductory or theoretical part of the work, of the various views now entertained upon the geological structure, origin, and manner of formation of ore deposits in general is by far the most complete that has yet been given. For the first time, in a treatise upon ore deposits, has due recognition been given to the agency of replacement or substitution in the formation of ore bodies, which was first practically demonstrated on a large scale in the case of the deposits of Leadville, and has since been found applicable to almost all metallic deposits occurring in limestones. According to the old traditions, based upon what are now known to have been rather exceptional occurrences, a pre-existing open cavity of the general form and size of the deposit, as now found in nature, was considered to be an indispensable prerequisite; under the modern view a natural water channel that will admit the mineral-bearing solutions is all that is absolutely necessary. The chapter on the classification of ore deposits is in itself a compendium of the progress made in late years towards a genetic discrimination in making subdivisions, as distinguished from the methods formerly in vogue, which based their distinctions largely on the outward and more or less accidental form, and which were often, as the author remarks, "geologically considered, only convenient admissions of ignorance as to origin." The classification finally adopted by Prof. Kemp himself seems, however, open to the criticism of being rather too complicated for practical use.

Of the descriptions of typical and important deposits of the ores of the various metals, which occupy the greater part of the book, the quality is of less even excellence. Where the author has some personal knowledge of the occurrences, or where they have been thoroughly studied and described by trained geologists, his brief descriptions are in general admirably clear and concise. On the other hand, when he depends, as in the case of many of the Western deposits, on occasional descriptions given by persons of varying degrees of scientific ability, his want of personal familiarity with the ground is apt to lead him into the error, unfortunately too common among writers on geology, of giving equal weight to all printed opinions without due regard to the competency or relative ability of those who hold them. For the technical reader this want of discrimination is in a measure offset by the completeness of the references, which enable him to consult the originals and discriminate for himself, but the general public has a right to expect that this should be done by the author. The value of the work is much enhanced by the admirable arrangement and completeness of its bibliography, and, taken as a whole, though not claiming to be a great work of original research, it is a most exhaustive statement of the present condition of knowledge of the subject treated, and constitutes a much-needed and very reliable book of reference.

The mechanical execution of the cuts and

photographic reproductions, which form an important part of a work of this kind, is not up to the best standard of the day.

Landmarks of a Literary Life, 1820-1892. By Mrs. Newton Crosland (Camilla Toulmin). Charles Scribner's Sons.

THE reminiscences of a woman eighty years old, most of whose life has been spent in London in intimate association with authors and artists, could hardly be shorn of interest by the worst manner conceivable; needless to say that they gain immensely by the development of so agreeable a personality as Mrs. Crosland's. The old-fashioned portrait of the author, engraved from a miniature, shows a very pretty and pensive young lady, and the book reveals a very gentle, kind, and sincere old lady. In her early youth, family misfortune constrained Miss Toulmin to cast about for means of self-support, and she instinctively took to the pen—a bold venture in the days when it was deemed improper for a woman to wield that implement except for the purpose of writing a polite note or signing the marriage register. If she had many difficulties in thus providing herself with comforts, she does not dwell on them. She was taken up by the Chambers Brothers, the editors of the *Annuals* and of several journals long extinct and forgotten, and she maintained pleasant and profitable relations with all. Though she must have met most of the brilliant stars of a great literary period, her friendships were with the lesser lights, and hence most of her book is given to people whom we know only a little about and of whom we are well satisfied to hear more. Among her near friends the Brownings were perhaps the only great people. Miss Mulock was her bridesmaid, and at Gore House she formed an intimacy with Lady Blessington's niece, Margaret Power. There, too, she met some famous people, among them Louis Napoleon, whom, she says,

"I certainly thought one of the ugliest men I had ever seen. His nose seemed enormous and his eyes sunken and small. His complexion was so darkly sallow that he reminded me of Carlyle's description of the 'Sea-Green Robespierre.' Nevertheless I admired his simple manners, which were more like those of an English gentleman than what we used to associate with a Frenchman."

The scandals that hang about Gore House are mentioned only to be brushed aside with characteristic charity; so is the historical gossip about Lord Nelson and Lady Hamilton. Queen Caroline is not exonerated, but she is felt to have been far more sinned against than sinning. Sympathy with her own sex leads to an unexpected criticism of 'Vanity Fair,' which, in Mrs. Crosland's opinion, "is marred by the unchivalrous act of choosing a struggling, penniless girl for the villain of the story." Perhaps so, but how could that story have been written with a born duchess for the villain? The effect of 'Vanity Fair' was certainly very sad if, "for years after its publication, it was enough for a struggling woman to show shrewdness and a little more than ordinary prudence for her to be sneered at as a Becky Sharp."

Mrs. Crosland met a good many Americans, whom she speaks of with caution, as of a wild variety of the species not to be measured fairly by civilized standards. One anecdote which she tells at second-hand, would, but that it is clearly apocryphal, justify this attitude. A distinguished writer being entertained at dinner "at one of the ducal residences," shocked decorum by exclaiming, "in a voice that every

one could hear, "Duchess, how ever do you fix your hair?" Another is a personal experience. She had obtained invitations to the Mansion House for a Southern gentleman and his daughter.

"Rarely," she says, "have I felt so humiliated as I was by the deportment of this sometime Governor of a State—this haughty, self-sufficient slave-owner, who thought himself the equal of any peer in the room, but who, from time to time, relieved his cough in that American mode which Mrs. Trollope characterized as disgusting."

The "vice of slavery" is ingeniously held accountable for that sometime Governor's bad manners, but we feel that he should bear the whole blame of causing a nice young lady an anguish which is keenly remembered for forty years. Mrs. Crosland forgave him more easily than she could forgive Miss Mitford, whose selfishness on a certain occasion put her to great discomfort, and to whom she devotes several pages that show a perfectly righteous asperity.

The reminiscences end in the early sixties, and we regret that they have not been carried further. Though they cannot be described as brilliant or exciting, they are full of amiability and good sense, and make a most readable addition to pictures of life and manners in the early Victorian era.

An Elementary Treatise on Fourier's Series and Spherical and Ellipsoidal Harmonics. By William Elwood Byerly. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1893.

Lectures on Mathematics, delivered in August and September, 1893, at Evanston, Ill. By Felix Klein. Reported by Alex. Ziwet. Macmillan & Co. 1894.

NOTWITHSTANDING its name, so redolent of Helicon, there is mighty little poetry in Spherical Harmonics. The blessed, after a thousand years' performance on harps, may possibly betake themselves to setting one another problems in modern geometry; but to spherical harmonics we may confidently assert they will not resort. This subject might be called the conveyancing of mathematics, since it teaches how to express facts in a form which, though it affords no insight into causes or essences, but on the contrary is blind and bewildering, is for all that quite indispensable for making the mathematician master of his data. The usual problem is this: A certain quantity has a value at every point of some surface—most usually, that of the earth. This value—it may be elevation above or depression below the sea level, or the distance of the sea level from the centre, or the force of gravity, or a magnetic constant, and so on—has been ascertained at many points, and is assumed to vary continuously. (Most experts will say no such assumption is made.) Then, spherical harmonics shows us what we may presume to be the approximate values at points where the quantity has not been observed. Moreover, it affords a general expression for the value; still further, it shows how to cut up the quantity into parts, each of which is susceptible of further mathematical treatment. It is, thus, a theory (for so mathematicians use the word theory) of great utility; and, like other utility-mathematics, is tedious, difficult, disagreeable, and unbeautiful. This is a circumstance which breeds many loathers of mathematics, because these disagreeable branches are taught first.

The present treatise is undoubtedly the best in our language upon this subject. Its only rival, that of Todhunter, always an unneccessa-

rily dry book, is now pretty antiquated likewise. Mr. Byerly adheres to one point of view pretty consistently, exhibits the doctrine under its best aspect, and leads us into it by the easiest road. It is a branch which nobody but a practical mathematician will care for, and which every practical mathematician has to master.

When we turn from this book to Klein's lectures, we seem to be passing out from a tremendous, rattling factory, with its grimly earnest, unlovely economy, into the pure meadows with the really vastly greater, but infinitely calm, agencies of sunshine, breeze, and river. Here, in only a hundred pages, the moving impulses of modern mathematics are set forth in a way in the highest degree instructive and interesting to every mathematician, without any tax upon his energies. Felix Klein, we need hardly say, is generally considered as the most interesting, if not the greatest (certainly not in all respects), of living mathematicians. For such a hundred pages as these the mathematician may search in vain. The small compass renders the process of mathematical cogitation all the clearer, and strips it of details which in other books obscure it; and particularly of details of demonstration that are often wrongly taken to be the soul of mathematical thinking. Such a lesson as this book affords of the conduct of mathematical research the younger student (it is not for beginners) will not easily find. Those who know Klein need hardly be informed that the lectures range over a large part of recent mathematics. The following passage (in which we take the liberty twice to put *experience* in place of "conception") is interesting:

"We are forced to the opinion that our geometrical demonstrations have no absolute objective truth, but are true only for the present state of our knowledge. These demonstrations are always confined within the range of space experiences that are familiar to us; and we can never tell whether an enlarged experience may not lead to further possibilities that would have to be taken into account. From this point of view, we are led in geometry to a certain modesty, such as is always in place in the physical sciences."

Appended to the lectures are ten pages on the history of modern mathematics in Germany.

The English Church in the Nineteenth Century, 1800-1833. By John H. Overton, D.D., Canon of Lincoln and Rector of Epworth. Longmans, Green & Co. 1894.

DR. OVERTON'S studies for 'The English Church in the Eighteenth Century' brought him to the threshold of his present task. In the former case he was collaborating with another; this work is all his own. It is well done, and the first four chapters are particularly interesting, dealing as they do with the more personal aspects of the matter. The chapters on "The Church and Education" and "Church Societies" may be even more valuable to English churchmen, but their appeal to the general reader is but faint and far away. It is evident that, stopping short at 1833, the very year in which the Oxford movement began, Dr. Overton has denied himself the climax of his history. But he has done this advisedly. The history of the Oxford movement has been written many times, and the light that has been thrown upon it has done much to darken the preceding period. By way of introduction to his 'Oxford Movement,' Dean Church wrote a few pages on that period, but in the manner common to the historians of the movement—to paint in a background dark as possible, so

that the virtues of the movement might be brought out in sharp relief. Dr. Overton has not gone to work deliberately to convey a different impression, but he has only had to tell the story of the time and of its work to show that there were men before Newman and his set who had "a work to do in England" and did it tolerably well.

It is Dr. Overton's impression that the Church had reached its low-water mark before the close of the eighteenth century, yet she continued to lose favor while she steadily improved. This was because her failure had been gross and patent to all eyes, while the improvement was within narrow limits and less obvious to the assailant seeking for grounds to justify the energy of his attack. Dr. Overton's catholicity is remarkable. He is so good a churchman that he has a good word for men of the most opposite tendencies and conclusions. He has three chapters, "The Orthodox," "The Evangelicals," and "The Liberals," and we cannot imagine that the inheritors from either of these branches will fancy they have any reason for complaint. It is, however, to the Orthodox, by whom the High Churchmen before the High Churchism of Newman are intended, and the Evangelicals, that he attributes the most of the improvement from 1800 to 1833. The former are less dwelt upon than the latter, as they should be, for the reason that they have had more than a fair share of attention heretofore. The inveterate toryism of the old High Churchmen has perhaps led to an exaggeration of their attachment to "the happy constitution of our Church and State" of which we have heard so much. But Dr. Overton is himself obliged to admit that practically their attachment to this constitution was something very different from the indifference to it, or contempt for it, of the Tractarians. These, too, would have had the Church and State one, but that one would have been the Church. The fact is, the temper of the old High Churchmen was political and that of the new High Churchmen was ecclesiastical. Keble belonged to both parties in succession, and it was only his attachment to the old order, his intense toryism, that kept him in the English Church, as such, when others went to Rome.

Keble's 'Christian Year' was published in 1827, and though Walter Bagehot called it a dilution of the weaker part of Wordsworth, it is the only religious book of the period that has now any general circulation. Moreover, Keble's ability was almost singular among a feeble folk. It is like passing from death to life to pass from Dr. Overton's second chapter to his third. The Evangelicals had life in themselves, if they had little scholarship or taste or intellectual ability. One of their own party said, "There are persons who secretly, if not avowedly, associate the ideas of piety and imbecility, and who do not hesitate to decide that he who professes to be governed by Christian principles must be deficient in natural understanding." One of the saints "cut his violin strings and never afterwards replaced them," nor went to a picture exhibition; another regretted her time spent with Shakspeare as a robbery of God, and excluded from her shelves "all the furniture of a worldly library." These sentiments and actions were characteristic of the Evangelical party, but to the same party we owe pre-eminently the abolition of the slave trade in 1807 and the abolition of slavery in 1833, though we must not forget that Granville Sharp and Thomas Clarkson led the way. The chapter on the Liberals is enlivened by the name of Sydney Smith and a few characteris-

tic passages from his writings; but the greatest names upon the Liberal list are those of Whately and Arnold. The latter is more dwelt upon than any other, and with that admiration which his character has compelled from those who have hated his opinions. Hampden and his significant book of 1832 are passed over much too lightly; and Blanco White, whom Liddon credits with the paternity of the Liberal church party, has but a single line.

The chapter on "Church Services and Fabrics" proves conclusively that, however it may be with religion, sacramental worship is much more cultivated now than it was formerly. There are some instructive pages on the preaching of the time. Sydney Smith wrote that "decent debility" was its most frequent note; that it "called in paralysis to the aid of piety," as if sin could be taken from men "as Eve was from Adam by casting them into a deep slumber." He was opposed to written sermons, but another high authority denounced extempore preaching as immoral. It was generally considered possible only by the special grace of God, and hence it gave the preacher an unwarrantable spiritual authority. The High Churchmen cultivated a dull and lifeless manner by way of criticism on the pulpit methods of the Methodist churchmen. A chapter reviewing the literature of the period gets its main interest from the secular writers, Coleridge, Wordsworth, and Sir Walter Scott. It is generally agreed that Scott's medievalism did much to inspire the Oxford Movement, and the influence of Coleridge on the Liberals was not less conspicuous. His "Letters upon Inspiration" would now meet with general acceptance. High Churchmen of the 'Lux Mundi' school have got a good deal further on; but in 1834 those who were able to receive them were a meagre band.

The Revival of Irish Literature: Addresses by Sir Charles G. Duffy, Dr. Sigerson, and Dr. Hyde. London: T. Fisher Unwin. 1894.

GAVAN DUFFY, the repealer of O'Connell's agitation, the rebel of 1848, the Sir Charles G. Duffy, Knight Commander of the order of St. Michael and St. George, first Minister of the Crown in Victoria, of later days, is giving some of the best energies of his advanced years to the furtherance of Irish literature. He has been mainly instrumental in establishing an Irish Literary Society, with headquarters in London. This society has published several interesting little volumes, of which that now before us is one. There is a certain strain of *laudatio temporis acti* about the movement—the looking back from a degenerate present to the golden and purely patriotic days of the forties. We whose memory carries us back to those times fail to recognize that there is more of the earth earthy about the present than about any previous phase of Irish thought; or perhaps we should rather say the thought of those times partook no less of the earthy than the thought of the present. This movement and these publications will do good in so far as they tend to stimulate a greater interest among Irishmen regarding their ancient language, literature, and music, regarding the material that exists in the Ireland of to-day for the production of wholesome and lasting literary work, such as that given to us by Miss Lawless and Miss Barlow. We cannot see how the study of Irish history, overspread as every page of it is with a sense of failure and disappointment, or Irish history as a background for the true poet or the novelist, can become popular until a satisfied present is reached, whence

the trials of the past can be calmly reviewed. Scott wrote at a time when Scotland generally was satisfied with her present; and it would be impossible for any writer, however great his genius, in this better informed and more critical age, to throw the glamour which he was enabled to throw over the state of society with which he dealt.

The intention of these addresses is good, but we doubt the wisdom of the spirit which animates them or the possibility of the realization of their ideals. A certain degree of national political life is doubtless necessary for the growth and expansion of Ireland. That she should seek to shut herself off from such communion in the literature of the English tongue appears to us neither wise nor possible of attainment. Even after reading these addresses we are still in the dark as to what are those "Irish lines" upon which, as Dr. Hyde tells us, the Irish race can alone best develop. Ireland cannot hold herself aloof from competition with the rest of the world. Even if the statement were true, we doubt the bracing effect upon a people of calling upon them to revert to old ways which once constituted them "the most original, artistic, literary, and charming people of Europe." Ireland has contributed, and will doubtless contribute, much to that literature which is the common heritage of the English-speaking race all over the globe. But it appears to us she will best cultivate whatever may be peculiar in her genius by keeping abreast with the main stream rather than by shutting herself off in a side eddy.

The Theory and Practice of Modern Framed Structures. Designed for the use of Schools, and for Engineers in Professional Practice, by J. B. Johnson, C.E., Professor of Civil Engineering in Washington University, etc., C. W. Bryan, C.E., and F. E. Turneaure, Professor of Bridge and Hydraulic Engineering, University of Wisconsin. John Wiley & Sons. 1893.

THIS is an ample treatise, and represents the latest American practice of to-day. It consists of a series of essays, practically limited to iron construction, by a number of skilled engineers, of whom the three mentioned in the title are the chief contributors. The essays cover all kinds of framed structures—roofs; girders, plate and trussed; cantilevers; arched, swing, and suspension bridges; standpipes; tower and mill-framing. They are grouped into two parts, the first chiefly theoretical, treating of analysis of loads, stress, and flexure; the second, chiefly practical, of detailed construction, though each impinges a little upon the other, and so leads to some repetition. The theoretical discussions are adequate to their purpose, and as complete and instructive as they ever are—more so than we are apt to find them—in works whose first aim is direct practice. The practical discussions are very thorough, the examples worked out in all essential details with great care, and with due attention to the actual conditions of material and manufacture; the two systems of riveting and pin connection, for instance, being given due examination and consideration of their respective advantages.

The chapter on æsthetic design of bridges is a new thing in such a treatise, and offers sensible counsel which we are glad to see urged. Design in bridge-building, even more imperatively than in other building, calls for fineness of line and proportion, because line and proportion are more self-asserting in bridges than in any other structures. These, however, are

qualities that good sense and good precept can never supply, and the command of which we can hardly expect engineers to gain, for they call for long training of a kind that engineers do not get. Some of the examples which Mr. Molitor cites with praise in this essay, e. g., the viaduct over the Truyère in plate xiv., seem to us signal illustrations of awkward line and misproportion, and wholesome antidotes to the superstition that true and direct construction will in itself lead to beauty.

The book is, so far as we know, the most complete and serviceable treatise of the kind that has been published in this country. It is winning its way at once in the schools of engineering—indeed, the first part has been printed before and used with approval in tentative form.

Biology of Ferns by the Colloid Method. By Prof. G. F. Atkinson. Macmillan.

THIS work is carefully prepared, and gives evidence of being based on original and very thorough study. The life-history of ferns is traced with sufficient, but not excessive, detail, from the spore, through the prothallium and its gametic organs, to the mature plant and its production of spores. Usually our native species are taken for study, though a few of the drawings are from varieties of common hot-house cultivation. The statement that in *Schizaceæ* "the form of the spores approaches that of a quadrant of a sphere," is hardly correct, for though *Schizæa* has ovoid spores, the spores of *Aneimia* are rather pyramidal from a convex base, or even tetrahedral, and usually beautifully sculptured on the surface with lines parallel to the edges of the facets. The spores of *Mohria* are very similar, and those of the principal remaining genus of the suborder, *Lygodium*, are anything but bilateral or quadrant-like.

Under "dimorphism" of the fronds the examples cited are mostly of native species, though certain foreign genera have species in which this dimorphism is more conspicuous than in any of the North American ferns. The remark quoted from Underwood, about the probable cause of the cases when the fronds of *Onoclea* have an intermediate character between the usual sterile and fertile conditions, is one of those sage observations which it is easy to make, but which observed facts hardly or not at all sustain. The discussion of the "dehiscence of sporangia and dispersion of spores" is interesting; but the drawings which serve as illustrations are rather too sketchy, and some of them recall pictures of the great meteoric display of 1833.

Part ii., on "Methods," bears evidence of being written to describe processes which the author has actually employed. A good picture or two of the dehydrating apparatus would have made its structure clearer than the description which is given. Every laboratory has its own methods, and it may be that some other processes are quite as convenient as those which are here described.

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Adventures in Algiers of Mathew Dudgeon, Gentleman. Longmans, Green & Co. \$1.25.
A Marriage above Zero. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
A Yellow Aster. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Barr, James. The Humor of America. London: Walter Scott; New York: Scribners. \$1.25.
Bradshaw, John. Sir Thomas Munro. [Rulers of India.] Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 60 cents.
Bramhall, M. St. J. The Wee Ones of Japan. Harpers.
Bridges, Robert. Overheard in Arcady. Scribners. \$1.25.
Bright, Prof. William. Waymarks in Church History. Longmans, Green & Co. \$2.
Briscoe, Margaret S. Links in a Chain. Dodd, Mead & Co. \$1.

Brodhead, J. M. N. Slav and Moslem: Historical Sketches. Aiken, S. C.: Aiken Publishing Co. \$1.50.
 Brough, William. The Natural Law of Money. Putnam, \$1.
 Büchner, Ludwig. Man in the Past, Present and Future. Peter Eckler.
 Burdett, H. C. Hospital and Charities Annual, 1894. London: The Scientific Press; New York: Scribners.
 Campbell, Scott. Union Down. Boston: Arena Publishing Co. 50 cents.
 Commons, Prof. J. R. Social Reform and the Church. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 75 cents.
 Cowley, Charles. Memoir of Josiah Gardner Abbott. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
 Crawford, J. M. The Industries of Russia. Prepared by the Ministry of Finance for the Columbian Exposition. 5 vols. Putnam, \$6.
 De Witt, Mme. Sur la Pente. [Magill's Modern French Series.] Philadelphia: Christopher Sower Co. 60 cents.
 Dodd, B. The Journal of Martha Pintard Bayard. London, 1794-1797. Dodd, Mead & Co. \$1.50.
 Downie, J. W. Clinical Manual for the Study of Diseases of the Throat. Macmillan. \$2.50.
 Epps, William. Land Systems of Australasia. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners. \$1.
 Fiske, John. Edward Livingston Youmans. D. Appleton & Co.
 Ford, Paul L. The Writings of Thomas Jefferson. Vol. III. 1781-1784. Putnam.
 France, Anatole. La Fille de Clémentine. [Magill's Modern French Series.] Philadelphia: Christopher Sower Co. 60 cents.
 Fulton, Hamilton. Guide List of Steamers Arriving at the Port of New York. 13th ed. The Author.
 Gaulot, Paul. Les Chemises Rouges. Paris: Paul Ollendorff; New York: Charles Eitel.
 Gibson, F. M. The Amateur Telescopist's Handbook. Longmans, Green & Co. \$1.25.
 Gilman, D. C. The Organization of Charities. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press.
 Gordon, Julien. Countess Obernau. Robert Bonner's Sons. \$1.25.
 Gore, Rev. Charles. The Incarnation of the Son of God. Scribners. \$1.50.

Graetz, Prof. H. History of the Jews. Vol. III. Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society. \$3.
 Guyot, Yves. The Tyranny of Socialism. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners. \$1.
 Hamersly, L. R. The Records of Living Officers of the U. S. Navy and Marine Corps. 5th ed., revised with numerous additions. Philadelphia: L. R. Hamersly & Co.
 Hermant, Abel. La Carrière. Paris: Paul Ollendorff; New York: Charles Eitel.
 Heslop, Rev. Oliver. Northumberland Words. Vol. II. Part I. London: English Dialect Society; New York: Macmillan.
 Hinkson, Katharine T. Cuckoo Songs. London: Matthews & Lane; Boston: Copeland & Day.
 Hole, Dean S. R. Addresses Spoken to Workingmen from Pulpit and Platform. Whittaker. \$1.50.
 Hope, Anthony. The Prisoner of Zenda. Henry Holt & Co. 75 cents.
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 Plunkett, Mrs. H. M. Josiah Gilbert Holland. Scribners. \$1.50.
 Prothero, G. W. Select Statutes and Other Constitutional Documents illustrative of the Reigns of Elizabeth and James I. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
 Ranhofer, Charles. The Epicurean: A Complete Treatise of Analytical and Practical Studies on the Culinary Art. Illustrated. The Author.
 Reibach, Jean. Les Lendemaîns. Paris: Paul Ollendorff; New York: Charles Eitel.
 Saltus, Edgar. Enthralled. American News Co.
 Scott, Sir W. The Betrothed and the Highland Widow. [Dryburgh Edition.] Edinburgh: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. \$1.25.
 Stevens's Facsimiles of MSS. in European Archives relating to America. 1773-1783. Vol. XX. London: B. F. Stevens.
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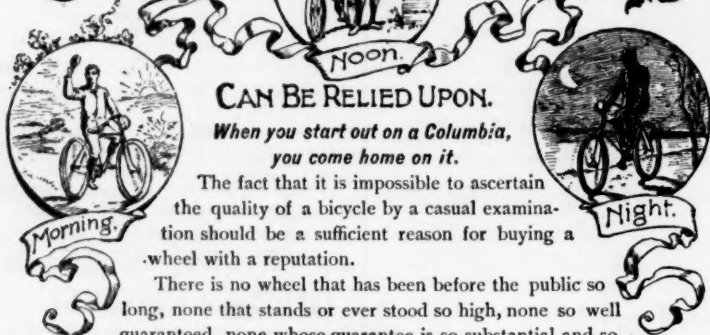
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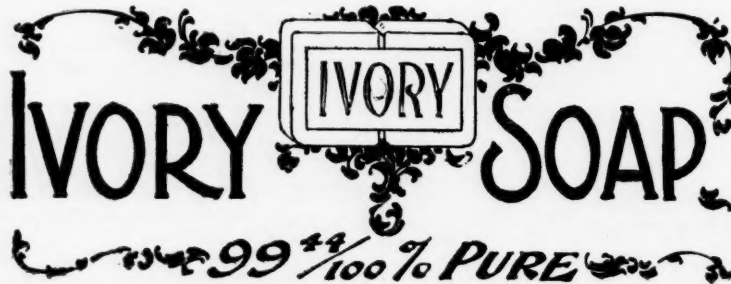
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